A SHORTER ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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A SHORTER ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

WITH

COPIOUS AND CAREFULLY GRADUATED

EXERCISES.

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PREFACE.

THIS Shorter Grammar has been published in accordance with the urgent representations of several by whom my 'English Grammar' has been largely used, to the effect that a book containing the 'pith' of the latter, with fewer minutiæ and discussions, and a more copious apparatus of exercises, would better suit the requirements of several schools, in which it was found difficult to secure sufficient time for grappling with the large amount of materials, which, by pushing condensation of expression and economy of space to their utmost limits, had been accumulated in the fuller work. The production of a book which would satisfy the need above referred to, is the object that I have steadily kept in view in preparing this 'Shorter Grammar,' the use of which will also, I trust, be facilitated by the improved style of typography which has been adopted. I have availed myself of the opportunity to introduce a few simplifications of expression and arrangement, and one or two trifling corrections which indicate my more matured views on some subordinate points. In the main, the present work proceeds upon the lines of the older grammar; so that in the body of the text the numbering of the paragraphs is almost the same, the divergences being so slight, as to occasion no practical inconvenience even if the two books are used together. It will be seen that instead of relega-

ing the old forms of our language to an Appendix, I have introduced them at appropriate points in the body of the work.

The Exercises constitute a distinguishing feature of the present work. I have done my best to arrange them in such a form, that the beginner will have, in the first instance, to deal only with the very simplest work, while by the time he has got to the end he will be able to see clearly into the construction of very intricate and difficult sentences. To effect this, I have to a great extent disregarded the common order of our grammars. In a grammar the materials must of course be arranged methodically, under the various heads of Noun, Adjective, &c., or the book would be unusable for purposes of reference. But it does not follow that a pupil must (for example) go through all that he is there told about Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns, before he learns or applies the cardinal definitions of the nature and functions of Verbs, Adverbs, and Prepositions. The simple, ordinary relations of nouns and verbs, in their most elementary combinations ought to be dealt with first. Such matters as the comparison of adjectives and the use of relative pronouns are better postponed to a much later period. The disadvantage of interspersing exercises amid the paragraphs of the text of a grammar is that no scientific graduation of the kind referred to is possible. The pupil must be taught to define the nominative and objective cases before he has learnt what a verb is, and after wading through a mass of rules about adjectives and pronouns of various classes, is informed for the first time, when far on in his studies, that a verb agrees with its subject in number and person. I have seen a grammar in which no fewer than fifty-three distinct rules of syntax, with exercises based upon them, are given before this primary fact is stated. The intelligence of the learner can be awakened, and his interest enlisted, only by making him see for himself how the

functions of words take their rise naturally as the need for them is felt, and how what is secondary and complex is based upon what is primary and simple.

The wider my experience becomes, the more energetically do I feel called upon to protest against the idea that the study of grammar is rendered easy by simply ignoring its difficulties, and that troublesome phrases and elliptical constructions are best dealt with by jumbling a number of words together, and calling them a 'verbal phrase' or a 'compound conjunction,' or something of the sort, and so choking the learner off from further inquiry. It is simply cheating his intelligence to do this, when, all the while, a rational and complete account can be given of every word. If he is not advanced enough to enter into this explanation, tell him so frankly, and postpone the matter for a time; but do not delude him into the notion that he knows all about the construction of such expressions as 'for fear that,' or 'as often as,' or 'so long as,' when he has called them 'compound conjunctions.' The result of the too prevalent plan of 'making things easy for the learner' (which commonly means 'saving the teacher the trouble of explanation'), appears in the execrable quality of a great part of what is shown up at public examinations as Parsing and Analysis.

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ADDENDUM.

Pp. 04–66. Some persons have the mistaken idea that a preterite like *felt* or *taught*, in which, as compared with the present tense, there is a change of the vowel sound, is a combination of the Strong and the Weak formation and so call such verbs 'mixed.' This is quite wrong. The change of vowel is merely *phonetic*, it is not *formative*. It is a result of the addition of the suffix. The shortening of the vowel in *felt* is like the change of *nā* in *nation* into *nă* in *national*, or of *ī* in *wide* to *ĭ* in *width*. Sometimes the change ensued much later than the formation of the tense. In Old English *cacchen* (= catch) and *cahte* (= caught) had the same vowel. In Anglo-Saxon *tǣcan* (teach) and *tǣhte* (taught) were alike in vowel sound. The vowels in *crēpte*, *slēpte*, &c., in Early English were long (see *Stratmann's Dictionary*). A Scotchman still says *creepit* and *keepit*, while we say *crept* and *kept*. It is a great mistake to suppose that any kind of vowel change is enough to constitute the Strong formation. The essential feature of the Strong conjugation was the blending of two syllables into one (see § 221). This of course tended to produce a *long* syllable, and we see in Latin and English that this was the actual result. To trace the shortening of a long vowel to the same formation is quite wrong. Sometimes (as in *teach*) the vowel change is rather in the present than in the preterite. The sound of *teach* is comparatively modern.

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HISTORICAL OUTLINE.

THE various languages spoken by mankind admit of being grouped together in certain great **families**, the members of each of which resemble each other more or less closely in the words used to express ideas, and in the grammatical framework of forms and inflexions by which the words are combined. One of these families of languages has been called the **Indo-European**, or **Aryan family**. It includes the Sanscrit, Persian, Slavonian, Latin, Greek, Keltic, and Teutonic languages. The Teutonic branch of this family is divided into two principal stocks, the Scandinavian and the German ; and the German stock is again subdivided into High German languages (spoken in the mountainous districts of the south of Germany) and Low German languages (spoken in the northern lowlands of Germany). **English** belongs to the **Low German** branch of the **Teutonic stock**, and is akin to Frisian, Dutch, Flemish, Platt-Deutsch, and Mœso-Gothic.

The inhabitants of **Gaul** and **Britain**, when those countries were invaded by the Romans, were of **Keltic** race, and spoke various dialects of the Keltic group of languages.

The conquered Gauls adopted the Latin language, and the Franks and Normans, who at a later time established themselves in the country, adopted the language of the people they conquered. Thus it has come about that **French** is for the most part a corrupted form of Latin, belonging to that group of languages which is called '**Romance.**'

The Keltic inhabitants of Britain did not adopt the Latin language, but retained their own Keltic dialects. One of these is still spoken by the Keltic inhabitants of Wales.

English is the language brought into England by the **Saxons and Angles**, who in the fifth century conquered and dispossessed the British or Keltic inhabitants, and drove the remnants of them into the remote mountainous corners of the island, especially Wales, Cornwall (which was called West Wales), and Strathclyde (comprising Cumberland, Westmoreland, and the Western Lowlands of Scotland). They were a Teutonic race, coming from the lowland region in the north-western part of Germany. The name **Angle** appears to have belonged at first only to one division of these Teutonic invaders ; but

in course of time, though long before the Norman Conquest, it was extended over the rest, and the entire body of the Teutonic inhabitants of our country called themselves and their language **English**, and their country **England** (Angle-land). In speaking of themselves they also, at least for a time, employed the compound term **Anglo-Saxon**. English thus became the predominant language in our island from the Firth of Forth* to the English Channel, and has continued so for more than thirteen centuries. During this time, it has, of course, undergone many changes. It has adopted many new words from other languages, and its forms have been altered to some extent ; but it has lasted in unbroken continuity from its introduction until now.

Modern English is only a somewhat altered form of the language which was brought into England by the Saxons and Angles, and which in its early form, before the changes consequent upon the Norman Conquest, is commonly called **Anglo-Saxon.** The grammatical framework of Modern English is still purely **Anglo-Saxon.**

As regards its form, **Anglo-Saxon (or old English)** differed from modern English in this respect, that it had a much greater number of grammatical inflexions. Thus nouns had five cases, and there were different declensions (as in Latin) ; adjectives were declined, and had three genders ; pronouns had more forms, and some had a dual number as well as a singular and plural ; the verbs had more variety in their personal terminations. The greater part of these inflexions were dropped in the course of the three centuries following the Norman Conquest, the grammatical functions of several of them being now served by separate words, such as prepositions and auxiliary verbs. This change is what is meant when it is said that Anglo-Saxon (or ancient English) was an *inflexional* language, and that **modern English** is an **analytical** language.

The greater part of the foreign words that have been incorporated into English, and are now part and parcel of the language, may be divided into the following classes :—

1. Words of Keltic origin.—The Anglo-Saxons adopted a few Keltic words from such Britons as they kept among them as slaves or wives. These words consist chiefly of geographical names, such as Avon, Don, Usk, Exe, Ouse, Pen (in *Pen*rith, *Pen*zance), Mendip, Wight, Kent, &c. ; and words relating to common household matters, such as *kiln*, *crook*, *clout*, *darn*, *gruel*, *mattock*, *mop*, *rug*, *wire*, &c. As the Gauls were of Keltic race, Keltic words naturally made their appearance in French, and some were thus introduced into our language not directly from the Britons, but through the medium of Norman-French (such, for example, as *basket*, *button*, *gown*, *wicket*, *bran*, *fleam*).

2. Words of Scandinavian origin.—Men of Scandinavian race (Picts, Norsemen, and Danes) made repeated incursions into this

* Lowland Scotch is a genuine Anglian dialect, and has kept closer to the Teutonic type than modern English.

island during several centuries, and established themselves in force on the eastern side of the island, in East Anglia, Northumbria, and part of Mercia. In consequence of this a good many Scandinavian words made their way into common use, and Danish or Scandinavian forms appear in many names of places in the districts occupied by the Scandinavian invaders, such as *by* ('town,' as in Grimsby); *Scaw* ('wood,' as in Scawfell); *force* ('waterfall,' as Stockgill Force); *holm* ('island,' as in Langholm); *ness* ('headland,' as in Furness); *ey* ('island,' as in Orkney); *beck* ('brook,' as in Troutbeck), &c. The influx of the Scandinavian element produced on the northern dialects the same sort of effect that the Norman-French element did on the southern dialects; it led to the weakening and disuse of the inflexions in the northern dialects long before the like change was brought about in the southern dialects.

3. Words of Latin origin, and Greek Words introduced through Latin.—Of these we have now immense numbers in English, the words of classical origin being considerably more than twice as numerous as those of Teutonic origin, there being, according to some authorities, about 29,000 of the former to about 13,000 of the latter. These words came in at various periods, and under various circumstances.

a. A few Latin words, connected with names of places, were adopted by the Britons from the Romans, and by the Angles and Saxons from the Britons, and appear, for example, in Chester (*castra*), Gloucester, Stratford (*strata*), Lincoln (*colonia*), Fossbury (*fossa*).

b. A good many words of classical origin were introduced between the settlement of the Saxons and the Norman Conquest by the ecclesiastics who brought Christianity into England. These words are mostly ecclesiastical terms, and names of social institutions and natural objects previously unknown to the English. These words came direct from Latin, or from Greek through Latin.

c. A much larger number of words of Latin origin came to us through Norman-French, the acquired language of the Norman conquerors of England. After the Conquest this was of course the language of the Norman nobles and their retainers throughout England. To a more limited extent it had been introduced as the language of the court of Edward the Confessor. Most of the words in our language which relate to feudal institutions, to war, law, and the chase, were introduced in this way. English, however, never ceased to be the language of the mass of the native population, though an important change in it was at least accelerated, if not first commenced, by the influence of the Norman-French, which was established side by side with it. The numerous grammatical inflexions of the older English began to be disused, and in the course of the three centuries that followed the Conquest were reduced to little more than their present number.

d. The revival of the study of the classical languages in the sixteenth century led to the introduction of an immense number of

Latin and Greek words, which were taken direct from the original languages. Many of these importations have since been discarded. It often happens that the same classical word has given rise to two words in English, one coming to us through Norman-French, the other taken direct from Latin. In such cases, the former is the shorter and more corrupted form. Compare, for example, *hotel* and *hospital*, *reason* and *rational*, *poison* and *potion*.

4. Words of Miscellaneous origin.—The extensive intercourse maintained during the last three hundred years with all parts of the world naturally led to the introduction of words from most languages of importance, relating to natural productions, works of art, or social institutions, with which this intercourse first made us acquainted.

Thus it has come about that the two chief constituents of **modern English** are **Anglo-Saxon** and **Latin**, mixed with a small proportion of words of miscellaneous origin. Most of the Teutonic elements of English were introduced by the Saxons and Angles. A good many also came in with the Danes and Norsemen (for the Scandinavian races are of the Teutonic stock); and a few more passed from the Norsemen into Norman-French, and so found their way into English.

As a general rule (admitting, of course, of numerous exceptions) it will be found that words relating to common natural objects, to home life, to agriculture, and to common trades and processes, are usually of Teutonic origin. Words relating to the higher functions of social life—religion, law, government, and war, to the less obvious processes of the mind, and to matters connected with art, science, and philosophy, are commonly of classical and mostly of Latin origin. Most words of three or more syllables, and a large number of those of two, are of classical origin. The Teutonic element prevails (though very far from exclusively) in words of one or two syllables, and is by far the most forcible and expressive. Hence it predominates in all our finest poetry. It is impossible to write a single sentence without Teutonic elements, but sentence after sentence may be found in Shakspeare and the English Bible, which is pure English, in the strictest sense of that term.

One great advantage which English has derived from the mingling of the Teutonic and Romance elements is the great richness of its vocabulary, and its power of expressing delicate shades of difference in the signification of words by the use of pairs of words, of which one is Teutonic and the other French.*

The changes by which Anglo-Saxon (or the oldest English) became modern English were gradual, and no exact date can be given for the introduction of this or that particular alteration. Still the process was influenced or accelerated at certain points by political events. The Norman Conquest, and the political relations between the conquering and the conquered race, naturally made Norman-French the language of the court and the nobles, of the courts of justice, of the episcopal sees, and of garrisoned places. But the loss of Normandy in 1206, the enactments of Henry III. and Louis IX., that the subjects of the one crown should not hold lands in the territory of the other, and the political movements under John and Henry III., stopped the further

* Compare, for example, *feeling* and *sentiment*, *work* and *labour*, *bloom* and *flower*. The number of pairs of exactly synonymous words is small.

influx of the Norman element. At the same time the absolutist tendencies of the kings drove the nobles into closer union with the Anglo-Saxon elements of the nation; and the French wars of Edward III. roused an anti-French feeling among all classes, which extended itself even to the language, insomuch that we learn from Chaucer that in his time French was spoken in England but rarely, and in a corrupted form. In 1362 appeared the edict of Edward III. that legal proceedings in the royal courts should be conducted in English.

Koch divides the historical development of English into five periods, in the following manner :—

First Period, that of **old Anglo-Saxon.** This period extends from the time of the oldest literary monuments to about A.D. 1100. The language was divided into two groups of dialects, the Northern or *Anglian,* and the Southern or *Saxon.* In the latter the speech of the West Saxons, in consequence of the political supremacy acquired by that division of the nation, took precedence of the rest, and became the literary dialect of England, though it did not, of course, oust the other dialects from use in oral speech ; and in course of time the Mercian or Midland variety of the Anglian branch became a dialect distinct both from the Northumbrian and from the West Saxon. It was widely spread, and that variety of it known as the East Midland became at last the parent of modern standard English.

Second Period, that of **late Anglo-Saxon.** This period extends over about 150 years, to the middle of the thirteenth century, and shows marks of the influence of the Danish and Norman settlements in disturbing the older system of inflexions, obliterating many of its distinctions, and so preparing the way for the still greater simplification which followed.

Third Period, termed by Koch **Old English.** This period, which extends over some 100 years, from about 1250 till about 1350, exhibits a continued weakening of the old forms, spoken sounds and their written representatives being both in an unsettled state, and the influence of Norman-French being distinctly traceable.

Fourth Period, called by Koch **Middle English.** This period, to which belong Wiclif, Chaucer, and Maundeville, reaches nearly to the end of the fifteenth century. In it the East Midland section of the Northern dialect becomes predominant.

Fifth Period, that of **Modern English.**

Leaving the vocabulary of the language out of consideration, it may be stated summarily that English has preserved from its Anglo-Saxon stage the suffixes that it still possesses in nouns and pronouns; the conjugation of its verbs ; the articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and numerals ; the comparative and superlative suffixes of adjectives, and the formation of adverbs; the flexibility and variety which it has in the formation of compounds ; the most important part of the suffixes and prefixes by which derivatives are formed ; the predominant principles of accentuation ; and the compactness and straightforwardness of the syntactical arrangement of its periods. To French we owe a considerable modification of the sounds of the language, the suppression of the sound of *l* before other consonants, such as *f, v, k, m,* &c. ; the softening or disuse of the hard, guttural sounds of *h* and *gh,* the change of hard *c* into *ch,* and the use of *e* mute at the end of words ;

the introduction of the sibilant sounds of *j*, *g*, *ch* and *c*; the use of the letter *z*, and the consonantal sound of *v*, and a great deal of change and confusion in the vowel sounds. French influence assisted in the recognition of *s* as the general sign of the plural in nouns. To French we also owe a considerable number of the suffixes and prefixes by which derivatives are formed, and are probably indebted for our deliverance from that stiff and involved arrangement of sentences under which modern German still labours. (*Mätzner.*)

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

1. **Speech or language** is the expression of thought by means of words.

2. **Grammar** (from the Greek *gramma*, 'letter') is the science that treats of speech or language. **English Grammar** is that portion of the general science of language which treats of the speech of the English people.

3. **Words** are significant combinations of elementary sounds. These sounds are represented to the eye by marks or symbols called **letters,** the whole collection of which is called the **Alphabet** (from *alpha*, *beta*, the names of the first two letters of the Greek Alphabet). The right mode of uttering the sounds that make up a word is called **Orthoëpy** (from the Greek *orthos*, 'right,' and *epos*, 'spoken wôrd'). The right mode of representing the sounds that make up a word by means of letters is called **Orthography** (from the Greek *orthos*, 'right,' and *grapho*, 'I write').

4. **A sentence** (Latin *sententia*, 'thought') is a collection of words of such kinds and arranged in such a manner as to express some complete thought. The words of which sentences are made up are of different sorts, according to the kind of purpose which they serve in a sentence.

Thus, in the sentence "The little bird flies swiftly through the air," bird is the name of something that we speak about; the

points out which bird is meant; **little** describes the bird; **flies** tells us something about the bird, by stating what it does; **swiftly** denotes the manner in which the bird does this; **through** shows how the action of the bird has to do with the air.

The different sorts or classes in which words may be arranged are called **Parts of Speech.**

5. Etymology (from Greek *etymos*, 'true,' and *logos*, 'word' or 'statement') is that division of grammar which treats of the different sorts of words separately. **Syntax** (from Greek *syn*, 'together,' and *taxis*, 'arrangement') is that division of grammar which treats of the way in which words are combined so as to form sentences.

THE ALPHABET.

6. The alphabet of the English language consists of twenty-six letters, each of which is written in two forms, differing in shape and size; the large letters being called Capitals, or Capital Letters.* These letters are the following:—

A, a: B, b: C, c: D, d: E, e: F, f: G, g: H, h: I, i: J, j: K, k: L, l: M, m: N, n: O, o: P, p: Q, q: R, r: S, s: T, t: U, u: V, v: W, w: X, x: Y, y: Z, z.

7. The **English** alphabet is the ordinary **Roman** alphabet, with the addition of the letter **w.** When English was in the Anglo-Saxon stage, the alphabet had no **j, q, v,** or **z,** and contained two symbols which have since been discarded, namely ð (*Eth*) and þ (*Thorn*), which both stood for *th*. The sound of *W* was represented by the symbol **ƿ** (*Wen*).

8. The letters **a, e, i, o, u,** are called **Vowels** (from Latin *vocalis*, 'that can be sounded'). They can be fully sounded by themselves, and with a continuous passage of the breath. The remaining letters are called **Consonants** (Latin *con*, 'together,' *sonans*, 'sounding'). They are voice-checks which stop (partially or wholly), or else

* Capital letters are used at the beginning of proper names, for the nominative case singular of the personal pronoun of the first person, and for any noun, adjective, or pronoun, used in speaking of the Divine Being. They may also be used at the beginning of a common noun, when it is used in a special or technical sense, as *Mood, Voice, Person*, and at the beginning of a noun, or an adjective and a noun, denoting something specially important. Adjectives derived from proper nouns are also written with capitals. We also write His Majesty, Her Majesty, &c. The first word of a sentence must begin with a capital, and the first word of a line of poetry.

set free the passage of the breath by which the vowels are sounded. They therefore have a vowel either before or after them.

9. There are thirteen simple vowel sounds in English ; the sounds of *a* in *tall*, *father*, *fate*, *fat;* the sounds of *e* in *met* and *mete;* the sound of *i* in *pin;* the sounds of *o* in *note* and *not;* the sounds of *u* in *rule*, *pull*, *fur*, and *but*. These sounds are expressed in many various ways.

The letter *a* represents five simple vowel sounds, as in *fate*, *fall*, *far*, *fat*, *wanton*.
The letter *e* represents five simple vowel sounds, as in *mēte*, *pĕt*, *herd*, *clerk*, *pretty*.
The letter *i* represents two simple vowel sounds, as in *pit* and *fir;* and one diphthongal sound, as in *bite*.
The letter *o* represents three simple vowel sounds, as in *poke*, *pot*, *for*.
The letter *u* represents four simple vowel sounds, as in *rūde*, *pŭll*, *fun*, *fur*.

These vowel sounds are represented by letters in English in a great variety of ways. Compare the following words in sound and spelling :—

Fate, braid, say, great, neigh, prey, gaol, gauge.
Fall, for, fraud, claw, broad, ought.
Far, clerk, aunt, heart.
Mete, meet, meat, people, chief, receive.*
Pet, many, said, bury, tread, friend.
Herd, bird, curs, earth.
Pit, pretty, sieve, busy.
Bite, thy, eye, height, dies, buy, aisle.
Poke, coat, toe, soul, tow, sew, owe, door.
Pot, what.
Rude, rood, flew, blue, fruit, through, shoe.
Full, good.
Fun, love, does, flood, rough.

10. The primary vowel sounds are ĭ (as in *pin*), ă (as in *far*), and ŭ (as in *full*). All others are lengthenings, combinations, or modifications of these.

11. When two vowel sounds are uttered without a break between them, we get what is called a vocal or sonant **diphthong** (from Greek *di* or *dis*, 'twofold' or 'twice,' and *phthonge*, 'sound'). There are four of them.

1. **i**, as in *bite*. (See above.) This sound is made up of the *a* in father, and the *e* in *mete*.
2. **oi**, as in *hoist*. This diphthong is also written *oy* (*boy*), and *uoy* (*buoy*). It is made up of the sound of *a* in *fall*, and *e* in *mete*.

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* It is convenient to bear in mind that with the exception of the words *seize* and *ceiling*, *ei* with the sound of *ee* is found only in words derived from the Latin *capio*, as *deceit* (decipio), *receipt* (recipio), *conceit* (concipio), &c.

3. **eu** (as in *eulogy*). This diphthong is also expressed in writing by *u* (*mute*), *ew* or *ewe* (*few, ewe*), *eau* (*beauty*), *ui* (*suit*), *ue* (*hue*), *yu* (*yule*).
4. **ou** (as in *noun*). This is also expressed in writing by *ow* (*now*).

12. When two of the letters called vowels are written together to represent a simple vowel sound, we get what is called an **improper diphthong,** also called a *digraph.*

13. The letters **w** and **y** are commonly called **semi-vowels.** When they are followed by a vowel sound in the same syllable, their sound approaches that of a consonant, as in *win, twin, you, yonder.* When a vowel precedes them in the same syllable they combine with it to form either a diphthong or a simple vowel sound ; as *awe, how, dray, bey, buy.* **Y** is a pure vowel whenever it is followed by a consonant (as in Yttria).

14. The letters **l, m, n,** and **r,** are called **Liquids.** *J* (or soft *g*), *s, x, z,* and soft *ch,* are called Sibilants (Latin *sibilare,* 'to hiss'). The liquids and sibilants do not stop the breath abruptly, but admit of a prolongation of the sound. Consonants which admit of a prolongation of the passage of the breath (**th, v, f, j, s, z**) are also called **spirants** or *breathing letters* (Latin *spirare,* 'to breathe').

15. The other consonants are called **Mutes.*** (Latin *mutus,* 'dumb').

16. The consonants **b, p, f,** and **v** are called **labials,** or lip-letters (Latin *labium,* 'a lip').

The consonants **d, t, th** are called **dentals,** or tooth-letters (Latin *dens,* 'tooth').

The consonants **g, k,** hard **c** and **ch** (as in *loch*) are called **gutturals,** or throat-letters (Latin *guttur,* 'throat').

17. **H** forms a class by itself. It is a simple impulse of the breath, and is called an **Aspirate** (Latin *ad,* 'at,' *spirare,* 'to breathe'). It was formerly a guttural letter.

18. The consonants are also classified in the following manner :—

Sharp (or **thin**)—**p, t, k.**

Flat (or **middle**)—**b, d, g.**

Aspirated— { **sharp—f, th** (in *thin*), hard **ch.**
flat—v, th (in *this*), **gh.**

In like manner **s** is a **sharp** sibilant, and **z** a **flat** sibilant. Compare also **x** in *Exeter* and *exist.*

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* The *Mutes* must not be confounded with *mute letters, i.e.,* letters which are written but not sounded, like *k* in *knot,* or *e* in *awe.*

19. Some consonants are sounded in more ways than one.

C is hard (= **k**) before **a**, **o**, and **u** (*can*, *cob*, *cut*); but soft (= **s**) before **e**, **i**, and **y** (*cell*, *city*, *Cyprus*).

CH is hard (= **k**) in *ache*, *mechanics*, but generally soft (= **tch**), as in *much*, *child*, &c. Like **sh** in a few words taken from French, as *machine*.

The soft sound of *ch* is due to the influence of Norman-French.

G is hard before **a**, **o**, and **u** (*gave*, *go*, *gun*), soft before **e** (*gem*), and before **i** and **y** in words not of Teutonic origin (*gin*, *gypsy*); but hard in *gill* (of a fish), *give*, *gilt*, &c.

The hard sound of g is often maintained by putting u after it, as *guile*, *guild*, *guest*.

20. A **syllable** (Greek *syllabe*, 'a taking together') is a single vowel, or a collection of letters pronounced together and containing only one vowel sound.

A word which consists of a single syllable is called a **Monosyllable** (Greek *monos*, 'single'), such as *man*, *horse*, *hut*.

A word which consists of two syllables is called a **Disyllable**, as *folly*, *learning*.

A word that consists of three syllables is called a **Trisyllable**, as *vanity*, *loveliness*.

A word that consists of more than three syllables is called a **Polysyllable** (Greek *polys*, 'many'), as *singularity*.

21. When a syllable beginning with a vowel is added to a monosyllable, or a word accented on the last syllable, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled. As *sin*, *sinner*; *sit*, *sitting*; *expel*, *expelled*; *confer*, *conferred*. But if the accent does not fall on the last syllable, the final consonant is not doubled; as *offer*, *offered*; *differ*, *different*; *visit*, *visiting*. The letters *l* and *s*, however, are generally doubled, as *travel*, *traveller*; *hocus*, *hocussing*. There are also some other words in which the rule is violated, as *worshipper*. The reason for this doubling of the consonant is that the quantity or length of the preceding vowel may be preserved. A doubled consonant usually shows that the preceding vowel is short. Compare *running* and *tuning*, *sinning* and *dining*, *manning* and *waning*. Before *ll* and *ss*, *a* and *o* are often long, as in *roll*, *stroll*, *squall*, *fall*, *gross*, *grass*, &c.

When a syllable (not beginning with *i*) is added to a word ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed into *i*, as *happy*, *happily*, *happier*; *pity*, *pitiless*. When the final *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is not changed. Conversely when *ing* is added to a word ending in *ie*, the *i* is changed into *y*; as *die*, *dying*; *lie*, *lying*. In monosyllables *y* is not changed before a consonant, as *dryness*, *shyly*.

22. **Mute e** after a single consonant is employed to show that the preceding vowel is long: compare *shin* and *shine*, *ban* and *bane*. It is generally omitted when a syllable that begins with a vowel is added;

as *force, forcible; love, loving;* but is retained if it is required to preserve the pronunciation of the consonant, as *change, changeable.* It is always put after final *v.*

Words must be divided into syllables in writing according to the way in which the elementary sounds are grouped together in speaking. Thus we must write *fa-cing* not *fac-ing.* With this limitation, the division should be made so as to indicate the significant parts of which the word is made up. Thus we should write *trans-port, in-spect.*

23. The English orthographical system has many imperfections.

The same vowel sound is often represented in different ways, as in the modes indicated above for expressing the simple vowel sounds and diphthongs.

The same letter or diphthong often represents very different vowel sounds. Compare *cat, pate, call, father; read, spread; broad, coach; goes, does, shoes, foetid; cull, full, yule.*

Some consonants have not always the same sound. Compare *give, gin, gill* (a measure), *gill* (of a fish); *cent, can; dough, cough; arch, archangel; his, this; thin, thine.*

The same sound is sometimes represented by different consonants. Compare *adds, adze; crutch, such; face, base; jury, gaol; know, no; plum, plumb; knowledge, privilege; fillip, Philip; picked, Pict.*

Simple sounds are sometimes expressed by two letters, as by *ck* in *duck; ch* in *loch;* and most of the written digraphs.

Complex sounds are sometimes expressed by single letters, as by *i* and *u* in *mine* and *muse; s* in *sure; j* in *just.*

Hard *c, q, x,* and, perhaps, *w* and *y,* are **superfluous letters;** their sounds may be represented by other letters.

If we include *w* and *y* as separate sounds, and the nasal *ng,* we shall have **forty-one elementary sounds in English.** *Wh* is pronounced like *hw,* and is not a separate sound. Consonants are often not pronounced, as in *through, plough, knell, know.*

ETYMOLOGY.

24. Etymology is that division of grammar which deals with separate words. It treats of their classification into groups, of the variations of form which they undergo to mark changes in their grammatical relations, and of the mode in which they are formed out of simpler constituent elements. This last division of Etymology includes Composition and Derivation.

25. One branch of etymology (comparative etymology) treats of the relation between words and forms in different languages which have a common origin, or are derived one from the other.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

26. The classes in which words are arranged (see § 4) are called Parts of Speech. These are eight in number :—

1. Noun.	**5. Adverb.**
2. Adjective.	**6. Preposition.**
3. Pronoun.	**7. Conjunction.**
4. Verb.	**8. Interjection.**

27. A **Noun** (Latin *nomen*, 'name') is a word used as a name for something, as 'bird,' 'James.'

An **Adjective** (Latin *adjectivus*, 'that may be joined to') is a word used with a noun to describe, to limit as to quantity or number, or to indicate that for which the noun stands, as '*Tall* men'; '*Three* birds'; '*This* book.'

A **Pronoun** (Latin *pro*, 'for,' *nomen*, 'name') is a word used instead of a noun, as '*I* see'; '*He* runs'; '*Who* spoke.'

A **Verb** (Latin *verbum*, 'word') is a word which tells something about some person or thing, as 'Lions *roar*.'

An **Adverb** (Latin *ad*, 'to,' *verbum*, 'word') is a word which shows how an action, state, or quality is modified or limited, as 'He writes *well*'; 'John came *yesterday*'; 'I am *very* tired.'

A **Preposition** (Latin *prae*, 'before,' *positus*, 'placed') is a word which, when placed before a noun or a pronoun, shows some relation in which some thing, or some action or attribute of a thing, stands to something else, as 'A cloud *in* the sky'; 'Come *to* me'; 'Fond *of* play.'

A **Conjunction** (Latin *con*, 'together,' *jungo*, 'join') is a word which joins together words which have a common relation to some other word, or sentences which have a mutual relation to each other, as, 'We eat bread *and* meat,' 'He heard the noise, *but* sat still,' '*Though* he is rich, he is humble.'

An **Interjection** (Latin *inter*, 'between,' *jactus*, 'thrown') is a word which expresses some feeling or emotion, but has no grammatical relation to other words, as 'Oh!' 'Alas'!

INFLEXION.

28. Inflexion (Latin *inflectere*, 'to bend') is a change made in the form of a word either to mark some modification of the notion

which the word stands for, or to show the relation of the word to some other word in the sentence.

Inflexion is now of two kinds.

1. Some inflexions consist in **the addition of certain letters** to a word, as *book, books; pant, panted.* What is thus added is called a suffix (Latin *suffixus*, 'fixed on'). These suffixes were once significant words, but gradually lost their full form and meaning.

2. Some inflexions (in certain verbs) consist in **a change in the vowel sound** of a word, caused by first doubling a root syllable, and then blending the two sounds together, as in *fight, fought; find, found.*

3. The addition of a syllabic suffix often caused **the vowel** of a preceding syllable to be **weakened** (compare *nā́tion* and *nắtional*, *vain* and *vanity*). This change often remained when the suffix was lost, as in *man, men; feed, fed.* What we thus get is only a spurious inflexion.

Nouns and **Pronouns** are inflected to mark **Gender, Number,** and **Case.** This inflexion is called **Declension.**

Adjectives and **Adverbs** are inflected to mark **degree.** This inflexion is called **Comparison.**

Verbs are inflected to mark **Voice, Mood, Tense, Number,** and **Person.** This inflexion is called **Conjugation.**

Prepositions, Conjunctions, and **Interjections,** are not inflected.

The **Stem** (or **Crude Form**) of a word that admits of inflexion is that portion of the word upon which the inflexions are based.

That portion of a word which it has in common with other words that relate to the same notion, is called the **Root.**

Some writers of authority restrict the term Inflexion to those changes which constitute Declension and Conjugation.

NOUN.

29. The word **Noun** means **name** (Latin, *nomen*). A **noun** is a word used as a **name** for something.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

30. Nouns are divided into two principal classes:—

1. Common Nouns.

2. Proper Nouns.

I.—COMMON NOUNS.

31. A **common noun** (Latin, *communis*, 'shared by several') is a word that is the name of each thing out of a class of things of the same kind, as *horse*, *stone*, *city*, or of any portion of a quantity of stuff of the same sort, as *wheat*, *iron*, *water*.

A common noun is so called because the name belongs *in common* to all the individual things in the class, or to all the portions into which the whole quantity of stuff may be divided.

A common noun distinguishes what belongs to some class or sort from everything which does not belong to it. Thus the name *horse* distinguishes that animal from all other sorts of things, but does not distinguish one horse from another.

32. Common Nouns are subdivided into—

1. Ordinary Class Names.

2. Collective Nouns.

3. Abstract Nouns.

An **Ordinary Class Name** is one that **belongs to each individual of a class**, or **to each portion of some sort of material**, as *horse*, *tree*, *water*, *marble*. Names of materials are used in the plural when different sorts of the material are spoken of, as 'teas,' 'sugars,' &c.

A **Collective Noun** is a noun which in the singular number stands for **one collection of several individual things**, as *herd*, *parliament*, *multitude*. In the plural it stands for several such *collections*.

An **Abstract Noun** is **the name of a quality, action,** or **state**, as *hardness*, *running*, *growth*, *sleep*. As **Arts** and **Sciences** are in fact *processes of thought and action*, their names are **Abstract Nouns**, as *astronomy*, *logic*, *grammar*.

33. Abstract nouns are derived from adjectives (as *hardness* from *hard*), from verbs (as *growth* from *grow*), or from nouns that denote a function or state (as *priesthood* from *priest*, *widowhood* from *widow*). The infinitive mood is often used as an abstract noun.

That which is denoted by an Abstract Noun has no independent existence, but is only *thought of* by itself, the quality being 'drawn off' (Latin *abstractus*) in thought from that to which it belongs.

An abstract noun is a common noun, because it stands for *every instance* of the quality or action that it denotes.

Abstract nouns are sometimes used in the *concrete* sense, that is, standing for that which possesses the quality which they denote. Thus *nobility* frequently means the whole body of persons of noble birth; *youth*, the whole class of young people, and so on.

34. Common nouns are *significant*. They not only *denote*, or mark out, the objects to which they are applied, but also *connote*, or *note at the same time*, the whole combination of marks or attributes, through their possession of which the various individuals named by the common noun are grouped into one class.

II.—PROPER NOUNS.

35. A **Proper Noun** is a word used as the name of some particular person, animal, place, or thing, as *John*, *London*, *Bucephalus*, *Excalibur*. The word *proper* (Latin *proprius*) means *own*. A *proper name* is a person's or thing's **own name**.

Proper nouns are written with a capital letter at the beginning.

36. Proper nouns, *as such*, are not significant. Even if the name, considered merely as a word, has a meaning, it is not applied to the object which it denotes in consequence of that meaning. *Margaret* means *pearl*, but it is not implied that a person called *Margaret* has *pearly* qualities. Many proper names, however, such as Snowdon, Blackwater, Newcastle, were at first *descriptive*.

37. Proper nouns are sometimes used like common nouns, when they denote classes or collections of persons grouped together because they resemble each other in certain attributes that marked some individual, as if we say of a poet, 'He was the Homer of his age,' or of a strong man, that he is 'a Hercules,' or speak of 'the Howards,' meaning philanthropists like Howard.

When a proper (non-significant) name happens to belong to several persons, it may be used in the plural, but is still a proper name, as 'the *Georges*,' 'the *Caesars*.'

INFLEXIONS OF NOUNS.

38. Nouns are inflected to mark **Gender, Number,** and **Case**; though these distinctions are not always marked by inflexion.

GENDER.

39. Living beings are divided into two classes or *sexes*, the **male sex** and the **female sex**, the individuals in the one sex

corresponding to those in the other. Things without life are not of either sex. Thus all things are arranged in three classes—**things of the male sex, things of the female sex,** and **things of neither sex.**

40. In like manner, nouns are divided into three classes or sorts called **Genders,** which correspond to the three classes of things just mentioned. These are the **Masculine Gender,** the **Feminine Gender,** and the **Neuter Gender.** *Gender* comes from the Latin *genus,* 'a kind or sort.'

The name of anything of the **male sex** is called a **masculine noun,** or a noun of the **masculine gender** (Latin *masculinus,* 'belonging to a male').

The name of anything of the **female sex** is called a **feminine noun** or a noun of the **feminine gender** (Latin *femininus,* 'belonging to a female').

The name of anything of **neither sex** is called a **neuter noun,** or a noun of the **neuter gender*** (Latin *neuter,* 'neither').

Man, king, father, horse, cock, bull, James, Henry, are masculine nouns.

Woman, queen, mother, mare, hen, cow, Mary, Jane, are feminine nouns.

Stone, tree, house, London, are neuter nouns.

In the case of animals and young children we often take no account of the sex, and hence they are frequently referred to by means of *neuter pronouns.*†

41. The names of animals sometimes do not indicate their sex, as *sheep, bird, hawk, bear, mouse, raven, swan, dove.* Also various names of persons, as *parent, spouse, servant,* &c. Such nouns are said to be of common or undetermined gender.‡ Some masculine nouns

* It is only in English, however, that this simple classification is observed. In Latin, Greek, French, and other languages, the names of many things which do not belong either to the male or to the female sex, are either masculine or feminine. When this is the case, gender ceases to answer (except partially) to any *natural* distinction, and becomes merely *grammatical,* though originally, no doubt, based upon a real, or fancied, natural distinction. A noun is known to be masculine (or feminine), not by its denoting a thing of the male (or female) sex, but by its having associated with it adjectives and pronouns with masculine (or feminine) terminations. This arbitrary, or merely grammatical gender has disappeared from modern English. In French and Italian there is no neuter gender at all. In Anglo-Saxon, the genders were to a great extent merely grammatical or arbitrary, as in Latin.

† But in poetry, fables, or lively narratives, animals are treated as male or female, even when the name is of common gender, with a general tendency to consider the larger and fiercer animals as male, and the gentler and more timid as female.

‡ But if there is anything to show the sex of the person denoted by the noun, the noun is treated as being masculine or feminine accordingly, and a masculine or feminine pronoun is used to replace it. Such a plural as *parents* is of necessity *common.* A singular noun so used that the context does not show the sex of the person spoken of, is treated as *masculine.*

(*horse, dog*), and some feminine (*duck, goose*), are often used to denote either sex.

42. Things without life are often *personified*, or spoken of as if they were living beings, and therefore either of the male or of the female sex.

Thus the Sun, Time, Day, Death, rivers, winds, mountains, the ocean, the seasons, the stronger passions (as Fear, Anger, Despair) actions connected with strength or violence (as Murder, War, &c.), are looked upon as male beings.

The Moon, the Earth, Virtue, ships, countries, and cities—Night, Darkness, the Arts and Sciences, abstract conceptions, as Nature, Liberty, Charity, Victory, Mercy, Religion, &c., the Soul, the gentler emotions, &c., are spoken of as though they were female beings.

43. *Sex* is a distinction between *things*, not between *names*. *Gender* is a distinction between *names*, not between *things*. It is therefore wrong to speak of the *masculine sex*, or the *male gender ;* to speak of a man as a *masculine being*, or to talk of *things* being of the *masculine or feminine gender*. *Things* may be of the male or female *sex*, but only *words* can be of the masculine, feminine, or neuter *gender*.

MODES OF DENOTING GENDER.

44. The distinction of sex in living beings is marked in three ways—

First Mode.—Quite different words are used,* as :—

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Father	mother	Drake	duck
Brother	sister	Cock	hen
Husband	wife	Ram	ewe
Uncle	aunt, &c.	Bull	cow, &c.

Man (like the German *Mensch*) was formerly used of the female as well as of the male. We see this in the compound *woman*, a modified form of *wimman—i.e., wîfman.*

Father means 'one who feeds ;' from the same root as *fee-d* and *fa-t* (compare *pa-ter* and *pa-sco*). *Mother* is from a root *ma*—'bring forth.' *Daughter* (Gr. θυγάτηρ) meant originally 'milkmaid.' The root is the same as in *dug*.

Husband (A.S. *hûsbonda*) is the manager or *master of the house*. *Bonda* in A.S. means *tiller* or *manager*.

In Anglo-Saxon *wif* was neuter (as *Weib* still is in German), and meant simply a *woman*.

Nephew and *niece* come to us (through French) from the Latin *nepos*

* Strictly speaking, this is not *grammatical* gender.

nepot-is) and *neptis*. The older Anglo-Saxon words were *nefa* and *nift*.

Queen (or *quean*) meant simply *female* or *mother*. In Anglo-Saxon *cwén-fugel* means *hen-bird*.

Lord is a shortened form of *hlâford* (*i.e.*, *hlâfweard* 'loaf-warden,' or 'bread-dispenser'). *Lady* is from the corresponding feminine *hlæfdige*. *Sir* or *sire* is from *senior*; *madam* from *mea-domina*; *monk* from *monachus*, 'one who leads a solitary life'; *nun* = *nonna*, 'grandmother.' *Friar* is from *frater* (Fr. *frère*).

Witch is now only feminine, but it might come indifferently from the Anglo-Saxon masculine *wicca*, or from the feminine *wicce*.

Drake (old Norse *andriki*; root *and* = Lat. *anat*; *riki*, connected with German *reich*, and Latin *reg-em*) means 'king of the ducks.' *Duck* is connected with the verb *duck*, 'to dive.' *Goose* has lost the letter *n* (Germ. *Gans*.) *Gander* is formed from the feminine, *d* being only an offgrowth of the *n*.

45. Second Mode—Inflexion.—Gender is indicated by the termination of the word.

A. Different suffixes are used for the masculine and the feminine.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
Murderer	murderess
Caterer	cateress
Governor	governess
Emperor	empress
Sorcerer	sorceress

The termination **–er** (in Anglo-Saxon **–ere**) is a true English suffix. The corresponding feminine suffix was **–ster** (A.S. **–estre**) as *m. bæcere*, *f. bæcestre* (*baker*); *m. hoppere* (*dancer*), *f. hoppestre*. **Spinster** is the only word which preserves the feminine force of the suffix. Many words in *–ster* now used as masculine (or at least of common gender), or as proper names, once denoted occupations carried on by women, as *maltster*, *tapster* ('*bar-maid*'), *Baxter* (from *bake*), *Webster* (from *webban* 'to weave'), &c. *Seamstress* and *songstress* are double feminines. The suffix *–er* has now ceased to be exclusively masculine.

In Anglo-Saxon **–a** was a masculine suffix and **–e** a feminine suffix, as **nefa**, **nefe** (nephew, niece).

B. The feminine is formed from the masculine by adding feminine suffixes.

1. The commonest of these, and the only one by which fresh feminines can be formed is **-ess**, as *count*, *countess*; *mayor*, *mayoress*.

This termination came to us through French, from the late Latin suffix *issa*. (Compare Gr. ισσα and εσσα.)

When this suffix is added to the masculine terminations *or* and *er*, the vowel *o* is usually omitted, as in *actor*, *actress*; *hunter*, *huntress*. The

masculines *author*, *mayor*, *prior*, and *tutor*, suffer no abbreviation. The *o* of *negro* and the *y* of *votary* are dropped in forming *negress* and *votaress*.

Abbess (from *abbot*) is a shortened form of *abbadess*. *Lass* is probably shortened from *laddess*. *Duchess* follows the French form *duchesse*. In *mistress* the *a* of *master* is modified.

2. One word, *vixen*, the feminine of *fox*, preserves the old Teutonic feminine suffix, *en* or *in* (compare German *inn*), the root vowel of the masculine being modified. (Compare German *Fuchs*, *Füchsinn*.)

The suffixes **-trix** (as in *testatrix*), **-ine** (as in *heroine*), **-a** (as in *sultana*), **-ina** (as in *czarina*), do not belong to English grammar, but are foreign importations.

Widower is perhaps a masculine formed from a feminine. *Gander* is formed from the feminine *goose*, which has lost an *n* (German *gans*). *Bridegroom* is merely a compound noun, *groom* = *goom* = *guma*, 'man' (*Anglo-Saxon*).

46. Third Mode. Masculine and feminine nouns or pronouns are prefixed or affixed to nouns of common gender.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Man-servant	maid-servant	Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
Man-singer	woman-singer	Dog-fox	bitch-fox
He-devil	she-devil	He-goat	she-goat
Boar-pig	sow-pig		ewe-lamb
Buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit	Pea-cock	pea-hen
Bull-calf	cow-calf	Guinea-cock	guinea-hen
		Turkey-cock	turkey-hen

Sometimes proper names are used to answer this purpose, as in *jack-ass*, *jenny-ass*; *tom-cat*, *tib-cat*; *billy-goat*, *nanny-goat*; *jackdaw*. In Anglo-Saxon, *carl* and *cwen* were used, as *carl-fugel* (*cock-fowl*), *cwen-fugel* (*hen-fowl*).

NUMBER.

47. Number is a difference in form which shows whether we are speaking of one thing or of more than one.

48. There are now* two numbers in English, the **Singular** and the **Plural**. The **Singular Number** of a noun is that form of it which is used when we speak of **one** of the things for which the noun stands, as *ship*, *horse*, *herd*.

* Formerly our language had a *dual* number, in the personal pronoun used in speaking of *two* persons.

The **Plural Number** of a noun is that form of it which is used when we speak of **more than one** of that for which the noun stands, as *ships, horses, herds.*

MODES OF FORMING THE PLURAL.

49. The plural is formed from the singular in the following modes:—

First Mode.—By adding the syllable **es** shortened to **s** whenever the pronunciation admits of it. The full syllable *es* is now added only when the singular ends in a sibilant (*s, sh,* soft *ch, x* or *z*), as *gas, gases; lash, lashes; witch, witches; box, boxes; topaz, topazes.* Words like *horse, horses* really come under this rule, the mute *e* not being regarded.

The letters **es** are also added (but without being sounded as a separate syllable) after several* words ending in **o**, as *hero, heroes; potato, potatoes;* in the word *alkalies;* after **y** when it is preceded by a consonant, the **y** being changed to **i**, as *lady, ladies;* and after words of Anglo-Saxon origin ending in **lf** or **f** preceded by any long vowel sound except **oo.** In these cases the flat sound which *s* always has in *es* affects the preceding consonant, and **f** is changed to **v**, as *elf, elves; shelf, shelves; leaf, leaves; thief, thieves; loaf, loaves. Wife* and *knife* get *f* changed to *v* in a similar way—*wives, knives.* Nouns ending in **oof, ff,** and **rf,** and nouns in **f** of Norman-French origin, have only sharp **s** added to form the plural, and retain the sharp sound of the *f*, as *roof, roofs; cliff, cliffs; dwarf, dwarfs; chief, chiefs.* So also *reef, fife,* and *strife. Beef, beeves;* and *staff, staves,* are exceptions in modern English.

50. All nouns except those above mentioned, and the few nouns which form their plurals in the second and third modes hereafter specified, have their plurals formed by the addition of **s** only, as *book, books; father, fathers;* the **s** having its **sharp sound** after a **sharp mute** (as in *books, cats, traps*), and **its flat sound** (*z*) after a **flat mute,** a **liquid,** or a **vowel** (as in *tubs, eggs, rods, pails, rams, nuns, bears, fleas*).

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* The usage in the case of words ending in *o* is arbitrary, and by no means uniform, *es* being commonly added. But *s* only is added to words ending in *io* and *oo*, and to the following words:—*domino, virtuoso, tyro, quarto, octavo, duodecimo, mosquito, canto, grotto, solo, rondo.*

When **y** at the end of a word is preceded by a vowel, **s** only is added to form the plural, and the **y** is not changed, as *valley*, *valleys*; *boy*, *boys*. *Qu* counts as a consonant.

51. The plural suffix **s** has arisen from dropping the vowel of the proper syllabic termination **es**, which is a modification of the Anglo-Saxon plural suffix **as**. The latter, however, was used only in masculine nouns. In Anglo-Saxon there were also other modes of forming the plural, but the influence of Norman-French, in which *s* or *x* was the common plural suffix, led to their gradual disuse.

52. Second Mode.—By adding **en**, as *ox*, *oxen*; *brother*, *brethren*; *child*, *children*. This mode was once more common.

The word *kine* (the plural of *cow*), also belongs to this class. *Children* is a double plural, *childer* being an old form of the plural.

53. Third Mode.—By **changing** the **vowel sound** of the word, as *tooth*, *teeth*; *mouse*, *mice*; *foot*, *feet*; *goose*, *geese*; *man*, *men* (see § 28).

54. Fourth Mode.—By leaving the singular unchanged, as *sheep*; *deer*; *grouse*; *swine*; *fish*; *fowl*, &c. (in a collective sense), *cannon*; *salmon*; *perch*, &c.

55. After numerals we often use the singular to do duty for the plural, as 'Two *brace* of birds'; 'Ten *sail* of the line'; 'Six *gross* of buttons'; 'A *three-penny* book,' &c. *Horse* (= horse-soldiers) and *Foot* (= foot-soldiers) have become a sort of collective nouns.

56. Names of Materials (as *sugar*, *wine*, &c.) and **Abstract Nouns** may have plurals to denote varieties or different instances of what is named, as '*sugars*,' '*wines*,' '*negligences*.'

57. Plurals of Foreign Words.—Latin, Greek, French, Italian, and Hebrew words generally retain their own proper plurals. Thus (1) in Latin words

Nouns in	**us** (masculine)	form the plural in	**i**,	as focus, foci,
„	**us** (neuter)	„	**era**,	as genus, genera.
„	**um** „	„	**a**,	as datum, data.
„	**a** „	„	**æ**,	as formula, formulæ.
„	**ix** or **ex**,	„	**ices**,	as radix, radices.
„	**ies** „	„	**ies**,	as series, series.

(2.) In Greek words

Nouns in **on** form the plural in **a**, as phenomenon, phenomena,
„ **sis** „ „ **ses**, as crisis, crises.
„ **ma** „ „ **mata**, as miasma, miasmata.

(3). *Cherub* and *seraph* (Heb.) make *cherubim and seraphim; bandit* makes *banditti; beau* (Fr.), *beaux; madame, mesdames; mister* (*i.e.* master), *messieurs; virtuoso* (Ital.), *virtuosi.*

58. If a foreign word has passed into common use, the plural may be formed in the English fashion, as *cherubs*, *bandits*, *dogmas.* Sometimes both plurals are in use, and occasionally with a difference of meaning.

59. Double Plurals.—Some nouns have double plurals, which differ in meaning, as :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
Brother	brothers (*by birth*).....	brethren (*of a community*)
Cloth.....	cloths (*kinds of cloth*)	clothes (*garments*)
Die.....	dies (*for coining*)	dice (*for play*)
Fish	fishes (*regarded separately*)	fish (*collective*)
Genius ...	geniuses (*men of talent*) ...	genii (*spirits*)
Index ...	indexes (*tables of contents*)	indices (*in Algebra*)
Pea*	peas (*regarded separately*)	pease (*collective*)
Penny ...	pennies (*separate coins*) ...	pence (*sum of money*)
Shot	shots (*discharges*)	shot (*balls*)

60. Plurals used as singulars.—

1. Words in **-ics** from Greek adjectives, as *mathematics.*

2. Certain words, as *means*, *gallows*, *amends*, *wages*, *pains*, are usually preceded by a singular demonstrative (*this*, *that*) and by *much* or *little* (not *many*, or *few*), but are followed by a verb in the plural, as 'Pains were taken,' 'Wages have risen.' *News* is now† always singular. *Small-pox* (sing. *pock*) is properly a plural.

61. Plurals in appearance.—

Riches (Fr. *richesse*, and so in Chaucer), *alms* (A.S. *ælmesse*, from ἐλεημοσύνη), *eaves* (A.S. *efese*) are not plurals, but have been mistaken for such.

62. Nouns used only in the Plural.—Nouns representing

* The singular *pea* has perhaps been made out of the word *pease* taken in a collective sense, and mistaken for a plural.

† "These ill news" (Shakspeare, *Much Ado*, II. 1, 180).

things which are double or multiform are used only in the plural, as—

1. Instruments or articles of dress made double, as *scissors*, *tongs*, *breeches*, *drawers*.

2. Portions of the body, certain diseases, games, ceremonies, &c., usually regarded as *aggregates* of a number of parts, as *entrails*, *measles*, *billiards*, *nuptials*, *matins*, *ashes*, *stocks*.

63. Plurals of Compound Nouns.—Compounds of a noun and an attributive word or phrase, in which the parts are not fused together into a single word, annex the plural inflexion to the noun, as *Courts-martial*, *Fathers-in-law*. Similar compounds of two nouns inflect both parts, as *knights-templars*, *men-servants*.

It is usual to say 'The Miss Smiths,' not 'The Misses Smith.' *

CASE.

64. Definition.—Case is the form in which a noun (or pronoun) is used, in order to show the relation in which it stands to some other word in the sentence.

The word *case* (Lat. *casus*) means *falling*. The ancient Greek grammarians took a fancy to represent that form of a noun in which it is used when it is the subject of a sentence, by an upright line, and compared the other forms to lines *falling* or *sloping off* from this upright line at different angles. Hence a collection of the various forms which a noun might assume was called the *declension* or *sloping down* of the noun. What we call the Nominative Case was called the *upright case*.

English in its Anglo-Saxon stage had five cases, at least in pronouns, the *Nominative*, *Genitive*, *Dative*, *Accusative*, and *Instrumental*. The last was dropped in nouns. Ultimately the *Dative* came to be used to do duty for the Accusative as well as for itself, and was called the *Objective*. We have now only three cases, the *Nominative Case*, the *Possessive Case*, and the *Objective Case*. In nouns the nominative and objective cases are alike in form.

NOMINATIVE CASE.

65. The **nominative case** is that form in which a noun (or pronoun) is used when it is the subject of a verb; that is, when it stands for that about which something is said by means of a

* So in Shakspeare 'Three Doctor Faustuses' (*Merry W.* IV. 5, 71). 'One of the Miss Flamboroughs' (*Goldsmith*).

verb, as '**Men** build houses,' 'The **boy** was struck by his brother.' If the verb of the sentence be in the **active** voice, the **subject** of the verb stands for the **doer of the action** described by the verb. If the verb be in the **passive** voice, the **subject** of the verb stands for the **object of the action** described by the verb. In either case **the subject stands for that about which something is said by means of the verb.**

It answers the question made by putting *who?* or *what?* before the verb, as 'Who build houses?' 'Men.' 'Who was struck?' 'The boy.'

66. The Nominative (Latin *nominativus*, 'naming') is the **Naming Form**, and *names* either the person or thing *spoken of*, or the person or thing *spoken to*, as in 'O *solitude*, where are thy charms?' When used in the latter way it is called the **Nominative of Address**, or (by some) the **Vocative.**

POSSESSIVE CASE.

67. The **possessive case** is that form of a noun (or pronoun) by means of which we can show that something belongs to the person or thing for which it stands. Thus in 'I saw John's book,' the possessive case *John's* shows that something (namely a book) *belongs to John.*

In old English this case had a wider use, corresponding more to that of the Genitive in Latin. It still sometimes denotes the more general idea of '*connected with*,' but chiefly in nouns that denote persons or animals,' except in a few special instances, as 'the earth's axis,' 'the moon's orbit,' &c. Such phrases as 'the river's brink' are usual only in poetry.

68. The meaning of the possessive case may be expressed by means of the preposition *of* with the objective case after it. Thus, for 'My father's house,' we may say, 'The house of my father.' But the possessive case must not be substituted for the preposition *of*, unless the *of* implies 'belonging to,' in some one of the senses of that phrase.

69. The **possessive case** in the singular number, and in those plurals which end in any other letter than *s*, is formed by adding the letter *s* with an apostrophe before it (thus, *'s*) to the nominative case; as, *John's*, *men's*, *geese's*. When the plural itself ends in *s* in

the nominative, *s* is not added to form the possessive, but the apostrophe is retained to indicate the case to the eye, as *birds' feathers*.

When a noun of two or more syllables ends in a sibilant in the singular, the possessive suffix *s* is sometimes dropped in prose (especially in words of more than two syllables) and is rarely added in poetry, but the apostrophe is retained as in plural nouns, as 'Moses' minister' (*Josh.* i. 1); 'Felix' room' (*Acts* xxiv. 27); 'Aeneas' son'. But this dropping of the *s* is optional, at least in prose.

70. The old Genitive or Possessive suffix in English was **-es** (still preserved in *Wednesday*, i.e. *Wodenes day*). It was used only in masculine and neuter nouns, and in the singular number. Its syllabic force is still heard after a sibilant, as in *Thomas's*. The apostrophe in the possessive case singular marks that the vowel of the suffix has been dropped.

71. The Possessive is the only case in nouns in which a case-suffix is now used.*

72. In the case of a complex name, the possessive suffix is put only after the last word of the name, as 'John Smith's father,' 'My father-in-law's house,' 'Henry the Eighth's reign,' &c. The same usage is followed when something belongs in common to two or more persons who are closely connected, as 'John and Mary's uncle.'

OBJECTIVE CASE.

73. The **objective case** is that form in which a noun or pronoun is used when it **stands for the object of the action** spoken of in some verb in the active voice, or when it comes **after a preposition.** In the sentence, 'The stone struck the boy,' the word *boy*, which **stands for the object of the action,** is called the **object of the verb,** and is in the objective case. In the sentence, 'John was riding in a coach,' the noun *coach*, which comes after the preposition *in*, is in the objective case.

74. The objective case is often used, like the Latin dative, to denote the *indirect object* of a verb, that is to say, it stands for some person or thing indirectly affected by the action, but not the direct object of it; as 'Give *the man* a shilling,' 'Tell *me* a tale.' In old English the dative differed in form from the accusative.

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* It will be seen hereafter that it was a peculiar English idiom to use a demonstrative pronoun, *to mark the grammatical relation* of some other word, or group of words. This probably gave rise to the practice of writing 'John Smith his book,' &c., for 'John Smith's book,' &c. The practice, however (which for a long time was a sort of fashion), gave rise to the utterly false idea that the suffix *'s* was a corruption of 'his.'

75. When a noun in the objective case is the object of a verb, the noun in the objective case answers to the question formed by putting *whom* or *what* before the verb and its subject. As in the example given above, 'whom or what did the stone strike?' *Ans.* 'The boy.'

76. In nouns the objective case is the same in form as the nominative. They can only be distinguished by their use. In an ordinary declarative sentence the **nominative case precedes the verb** and the **objective case comes after the verb.**

77. The following are examples of the declension of nouns in modern English :—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative Case	Man	Men.
Possessive Case	Man's	Men's.
Objective Case	Man	Men.
Nominative Case	Father	Fathers.
Possessive Case	Father's	Fathers'.
Objective Case	Father	Fathers.

ANCIENT ENGLISH DECLENSIONS.

78. The following examples of the older declensions of nouns will show how largely English has dropped its inflexions.

ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

WEAK DECLENSIONS.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	(*All Genders.*)
Nom.	nam-a	tung-e	eag-e	-an
Gen.	nam-an	tung-an	eag-an	-ena
Dat. Abl.	nam-an	tung-an	eag-an	-um
Acc.	nam-an	tung-an	eag-e	-an

STRONG DECLENSIONS.

	Masc.		*Fem.*		*Neut.*	
	Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	hund	-as	spræc	-a	word	word
Gen.	hund-es	-a	spræc-e	-a -ena	word-es	-a
Dat. Abl.	hund-e	-um	spræc-e	-um	word-e	-um
Acc.	hund	-as	spræc-e	-a	word	word

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

79. By this time most of the above inflexions had disappeared. Except a few traces of a dative singular in -e, inflexion in nouns had been reduced to the formation of the **plural number** and the **genitive case.**

1. The common plural inflexion was **-es** (Chaucer) or **-is** (Wiclif), shortened sometimes to **-s**, for which **z** is now and then found in words of Romance origin, as *instrumentz* (Chaucer, *Squieres Tale*, 270 ed. Skeat), *paramentz* (Kn. T. 1643), *olifauntz* (Maundeville; see *Koch* I. p. 416).

2. Plurals in **-en** or **-n** were rather more common than now, as *kneen*, *hosen*, *ashen*, *eyen*, *sustren*, *doughteren*, *lambren*, &c.

3. Some old neuter words continued without plural suffix (see § 78), as *hors*, *hous*, *thing*.

4. The genitive or possessive singular was formed by adding **-es** (Chaucer), **-is**, or **-ys** (Wiclif), or **-s**.

Feminine nouns occasionally have not **-s**, but **-e**, as '*heorte blood*' (heart's blood).

In the plural the genitive was usually not distinguished from the nominative, when the latter ended in *-s*. Otherwise *-es* was added, as *mennes*. Traces of the old ending *-ena* (§ 78) are sometimes met with.

ADJECTIVE.

80. When we speak of a thing we often require to mention some quality or state of the thing, or its number or quantity, or some relation in which it stands to ourselves or to other things. The words that do this are called Adjectives.

81. In the phrase 'a white horse,' the word *white* is an adjective. It denotes a certain *quality* of the horse.

In the phrase 'a book lying on the table,' the word *lying* is an adjective. It denotes a state of the book.

In the phrase 'two men,' the word *two* is an adjective. It points out the *quantity* or *number* of that for which the noun stands.

In the phrase 'this child,' the word *this* is an adjective. It points out that the child *stands in a certain relation* (of nearness) to me.

82. Definition.—An **Adjective** is a word that may be used with a noun **to describe, to delimit,* or to indicate** that for which the noun stands.

* To *delimit*, is 'to mark out the bounds or extent' of a thing.

83. An adjective answers the questions (1) 'Of what sort'? or 'In what state?' (2) 'How much?' or 'How many?' (3) 'Which?'

84. When it is attached directly to the noun to which it refers, an adjective is said to be used *attributively;* as 'a *red ball;*' 'a *bird flying* through the air;' '*which* hand will you have?' The adjective and noun together form a compound description of that which we have in our thoughts. When an adjective is connected with a noun by means of some part of the verb *be* (or some other verb of incomplete predication, such as *become*), it is said to be used *predicatively*, as, 'the ball is *red*,' 'the bird was *flying*.' All true adjectives can be used in both ways.

As things are *distinguished* by quality, quantity, and relation, an adjective joined to a noun usually *distinguishes* what the noun stands for from other things that may be named by the same noun.

85. The class-name 'horse' stands for that aggregate of resemblances by virtue of which one horse is like another. The compound name *white horse* means all that *horse* means, and *white* besides. It *adds* something to the meaning of *horse*. But the more marks we group together to distinguish a class, the smaller must the class be. The class denoted by *white horse* is smaller than the class denoted by *horse*. Hence we may also have the following

86. Definition.—An **Adjective** is a word which may limit the application of a noun to that which has the quality, the quantity, or the relation, which the adjective denotes.

87. To be an adjective, a word must do this by virtue of its *own proper meaning*. Certain forms and uses of other parts of speech may also have a definitive or limiting force. Thus in 'John's book' the possessive case '*John's*' has this force, but '*John's*' is still a *noun* in the possessive case, and not an *adjective*, just like '*Caesaris*' in the Latin 'Caesaris uxor' (Caesar's wife). But the possessive case is so like an adjective, that in some pronouns it was formerly declined like an adjective.

In combinations like *teaspoon*, *apple-tree*, *cannon ball*, the first word is not an adjective. It does not *express* an attributive idea, it merely *suggests* one. The two nouns form a *compound name*. Hence those most commonly used have come to be written as one word. The word *tea*, *apple*, or *cannon* cannot be used as a *predicate*, as a true adjective can.

88. As an adjective is not the *name* of a separate object of thought, an adjective can never be used as the subject of a sentence, or as the object of a verb, or be governed by a preposition.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

89. Adjectives may be arranged in the following classes:—

1. **Qualitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quality.**
2. **Quantitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quantity.**
3. **Demonstrative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Relation.**

90. I. **Qualitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quality**, denote some **quality** or **attribute** (from the Latin *qualis*, 'of which sort'), as *virtuous*, *white*, *large*, *small*, *great*, *little* (in the sense of 'small'), *such*. They may also be called **Descriptive Adjectives.** Participles belong to this class.

91. II. **Quantitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quantity** are adjectives which denote **how much** or **how many** of that for which the noun stands, we have in our thoughts (Latin *quantus*, 'how great'). This class includes—

a. The Cardinal Numeral Adjectives, **one, two, three,** &c. (The words *hundred*, *thousand*, *million*, like *pair* and *dozen*, are nouns.* They may be used in the plural, as *hundreds*.)

b. The words **all, any, some, half, many, few, much, more, most, less, least, both, several, enough, none** or **no** (= *not any*). Some of these relate both to number and to quantity.

Examples. 'All men are mortal.' 'He sleeps all night.' 'Some men prefer this.' 'Give me some wine.' 'Wait half an hour.' 'Few persons will believe that.' 'I have much pleasure in doing this.' 'He has more sense than his neighbour.' 'Most persons admire valour.' 'He had both eyes put out.' 'Make no noise.' 'Give none offence.' This use of *none* is now obsolete.

92. *Little*, *less*, and *least*, when they denote size, are qualitative adjectives; as, 'a little boy,' 'not in the *least* degree.'

93. *Many* may be used with a noun in the singular,† provided the

* In Anglo-Saxon they were followed by the genitive case, as though we said 'A hundred of sheep,' &c.

† So *multus* and *plurimus* in Latin. "Plurimus in Junonis honorem aptum dicet equis Argos."—*Horace.*

indefinite article be placed before the noun ; as, 'Many a man has lost his life by these means.'

94. *No* is a shortened form of *none*, as *my* is of *mine*. In Chaucer *one* is shortened to *o*. *None* in Anglo-Saxon is *nán* = *ne án* = 'not one.' *None* is not now used in the sense of *not one*, but used to be common, as 'None but the brave deserves the fair.'

95. III. **Demonstrative Adjectives,** or **Adjectives of Relation** (Latin *demonstro*, 'I point out') are adjectives which **point out** that which we are speaking of by indicating some kind of relation which it bears to others or to the speaker.

a. The Definite Article **the**, and the Indefinite Article **an** * or **a**.

b. The so-called Adjective Pronouns, or Pronominal Adjectives, comprising the following classes :—

1. The Demonstrative Pronouns, **this, these, that, those, yon.**
2. The Interrogative and Relative Pronouns **which, what,** and **whether.**
3. The Indefinite Pronouns **some** (in the sense of the Latin *quidam*, as in *somebody, some people*), **other, any** (in its sense of *universality*, as '*Any* fool may see that'), **one** (as an Indefinite Demonstrative, see § 166).
4. The Distributive Pronouns **each, every, either, neither.**
5. The Possessive Pronouns, **my, thy, his,** &c.

c. The Ordinal Numerals,† **first, second, third,** &c.

96. Adjectives are very often used without having the nouns to which they relate expressed. Thus, 'The *good* are happy ;' *i.e.*, good people. 'Blessed are the *meek* ;' *i.e.*, meek persons. Adjectives are then said to be used substantively. This use of Adjectives in a singular sense is now restricted to *general* or *abstract* ideas, as 'The sublime,' 'The beautiful,' and to a few phrases, as '*In common* ;' '*In general* ;' '*At least* ;' '*At random* ;' '*In future* ;' '*Through thick and thin* ;' '*For better or worse*.'

97. This use of adjectives is common in the case of the quantitative and demonstrative adjectives, as, '*All* is lost'; '*Few*‡ have worked harder' ;

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* The numeral *one* is used in more ways than one as an indefinite demonstrative. See § 166.

† It is a great mistake to class these among the Adjectives of Quantity. They do not point out *how much* or *how many* we are speaking of.

‡ *Few* used as an adjective denies that there are *many*. *A few* denies that there are *none*. *Little* is used with a similar difference. The phrase *a many* is now obsolete, except with *great*, '*a great many*.' As a noun *many* represents the Anglo-Saxon noun *mænigeo*, 'multitude.'

'*Much* has been said, but *more* remains to be told'; 'We can do but *little*'; '*That* is not true.'

98. Some adjectives are used completely as substantives, and form plurals, as *Romans, Christians, inferiors, elders, natives, nobles, plurals, nominatives, eatables, greens*, &c.

So also *one, other*; as 'These are bad pens, give me some better *ones*. I have no *others*.'

Either and *neither* are used in the possessive case. We also have such phrases, as 'For *ten's* sake'; 'They arrived by *twos* and *threes*.'

NUMERALS.

99. It has been pointed out that the Cardinal Numerals are Adjectives of Quantity, and that the Ordinal Numerals are Demonstrative Adjectives, or Adjectives of Relation.

100. The Anglo-Saxon forms of the cardinal, numerals are (1) ān; (2) twegen, twā; (3) þri, þreo; (4) feówer; (5) fīf; (6) six; (7) seofon; (8) eahta; (9) nigon; (10) tyn *or* tīn; (11) endlufon, endleof *or* endlif; (12) twelf; (13) þreotyne; (14) feówertyne, &c.; (20) twentig; (30) þritig, &c.; (70) hundseofontig; (80) hundeahtatig; (90) hundnigontig; (100) hundteontig *or* hund; (110) hundendlufontig; (120) hundtwelftig.

101. The syllable **-tig (-ty)** is really a substantive, meaning 'a lot of ten' (Gothic *tigus*, having the same root as *dec-em*). Hence the numerals *twentig*, &c. in Anglo-Saxon were sometimes substantives followed by the genitive plural. The curious '*eleventy*' and '*twelvety*' should be noticed.

Endlufon or **endlif** means **one + ten**; **en(d)** is a variety of the word **one**, and **lif** is really identical with the root of **dec**-em and δεκ-α.* Similarly **twelf** is a compound of **twa** and **lif** (two + ten).

The forms for *one, two*, and *three* were always declined, as were those for *four, five, six, seven, nine, ten, eleven*, and *twelve* when used without a substantive following. The compounds of *-tig* were sometimes substantives, sometimes adjectives.

First is the Anglo-Saxon **fyrst** (from *fore*). The A.S. *forma* is the superlative of *fore*, as *primus* in Latin is of *pro*. **Second** is the Latin *secundus* (following). The old word for second was 'other.' We still say 'every *other* day,' *i.e.*, 'every *second* day.' **Third** was in A.S. þridda, where *da* replaced ðа (= modern *-th*) after the *d*.

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* The letters *d* and *l* are frequently interchanged, as in *ol-eo* and *od-or*, δακρυ and *lacrima*. The modern sound of 'laugh,' compared with A.S. *hlihan* (Germ. *lachen*), shows how a guttural may pass into the sound of *f*.

INFLEXION OF ADJECTIVES.

102. Adjectives, in modern English, are not declinable words, with the exception of the words *this* and *that*, which have plural forms, *these* and *those*.

In the Anglo-Saxon stage of English adjectives were inflected.

ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

103. Adjectives preceded by a demonstrative word had their three genders declined like the masculine, feminine, and neuter nouns of the weak declension. (See § 78.)

When not preceded by a definitive word, adjectives were declined as follows :—

	Singular.			*Plural.*	
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*M. and F.*	*Neut.*
Nom.	til (good)	til, -u	til	tile	tilu, -e
Gen.	tiles	tilre	tiles	tilra	tilra
Dat.	tilum	tilre	tilum	tilum	tilum
Acc.	tilne	tile	til	tile	tilu, -e
Abl.	tile	tilre	tile		

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

104. By the time of Chaucer the various suffixes had been reduced to an inflexional *e* in the plural, especially of adjectives of one syllable, and of adjectives used substantively, and at the end of adjectives preceded by demonstratives and possessives.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

105. Adjectives have three forms called Degrees of Comparison. These are

1. **The Positive Degree.**
2. **The Comparative Degree.**
3. **The Superlative Degree.**

106. The **Positive Degree** of an adjective is the adjective in its simple form, used to point out some quality or attribute of that which we speak about, as 'A *black* cat,' 'A *fine* day.'

107. The **Comparative Degree** of an adjective is that form of

it by means of which we show that one thing,* or set of things, possesses a certain quality or attribute in a greater degree than another thing, or set of things.

108. The Comparative Degree (Latin *comparativus*, from *comparo*, 'I put together') is formed from the Positive by adding to it the syllable **-er**,† before which mute **-e** is dropped, as 'My knife is *sharper* than yours;' 'John's book is pretty, but mine is *prettier*;' 'Your parents are *richer* than mine.' One thing may be compared either with *one* other, or with *a group of several*; and a group of things may be compared either with another group or with a single thing. Also a thing may be compared with *itself under other circumstances*, as 'John is stouter than he was last year.'

109. The **Superlative**‡ **Degree** of an adjective is that form of it which shows that a certain thing, or group of things, possesses the attribute denoted by the adjective *in a greater degree than any other among several, of which it is one.* It is formed by adding **st** or **est**§ to the adjective in the positive degree; as, *greatest*, *largest.* Thus, of several boys in a group, we may say, 'John is *the tallest*.' Of the countries of Europe we may say, 'England is *the wealthiest*.'

110. Many adjectives, from the nature of the ideas which they express, cannot have comparative and superlative degrees; as, *right*, *left*, *wrong*, *square*, *triangular.* Sometimes, however, adjectives are used in a sense which falls short of their strict meaning, and then they admit of degrees of comparison which would not otherwise be tolerable. For example, *extreme*, *perfect*, *chief*; as when we say, 'This specimen is *more perfect* than that;' 'He died in the *extremest* misery;' 'The *chiefest* among ten thousand.'

112. The superlative degree is sometimes used in an *absolute* sense, when the thing spoken of is not compared with the rest of a class, but is regarded as possessing a certain quality in a very high degree, as 'Hail, *divinest* Melancholy' (*Milton*). In modern English *most* is usually prefixed to the positive to express this sense.

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* The word *thing* means generally whatever we can *think* about, *i.e.*, make a distinct object of thought, including *persons*, as well as what we commonly denominate things.

† In Anglo-Saxon the suffix was *-er* or *-or*; in declension dropping the vowel, and inflected according to the weak declension. The letter *r* is the softened form of a sibilant. In Gothic the suffix is *-iza*.

‡ Superlative (Lat. *superlativus*, from *superlatus*) means 'lifting up above.' The superlative degree *lifts* the thing that it is applied to *above* all the rest of the group.

§ In Anglo-Saxon the termination was *-est* or *-ost*. In early English writers we still find comparatives and superlatives in *-or* and *-ost*.

113. Spenser even uses the comparative absolutely, as 'Help thy *weaker* (= *too weak*) novice' (F.Q. *Prol.*)

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

114. In the case of some adjectives, the degrees of comparison are marked by what are commonly termed *irregular* forms. These are the following:

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good	better *	best
Little	less	least
Much	more	most
Many	more	most
Bad	worse ‡	worst
Late	later *or* latter	latest *or* last §
[Nigh]	nigher	nighest *or* next ‖
Fore	former	foremost *or* first
Old ¶	older *or* elder	oldest *or* eldest
Far	farther	farthest **
[Forth]	further	furthest

115. Adjectives of more than two syllables, and most adjectives of two syllables, do not allow of the formation of comparative and superlative degrees by means of suffixes. But the same ideas are denoted by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most* to the adjective in the positive degree. Thus, we say, *Virtuous, more virtuous, most virtuous; Learned, more learned, most learned.*

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* *Better* and *best* (= *betest*) are formed (with vowel-change) from an old word *bat* = 'good.' In old English the comparatives *bet, teng, ma*, throw off the suffix. The words *good, little, much, many*, and *bad* are not etymologically connected with the words used as their comparatives and superlatives.

† *Much* is the modern form of the Anglo-Saxon *micel* 'great' (compare μέγας and *mag-nus*). In old English *moe* (A.S. *ma*) is found for *more* when referring to *number*.

‡ *Worse* (from A.S. *weor* 'bad') has the original *s* of the comparative suffix. (See note on § 108).

§ *Later* and *latest* refer to time; *latter* and *last* refer (though not exclusively) to position in a series. *Last* = *latest*.

‖ The modern positive *near* is in reality the comparative of the A.S. *neah* = *nigh*, which was both an adjective and an adverb. The three degrees should properly be *nigh, near, next*.

¶ *Elder* and *eldest* are formed from *old* (A.S. *eald*), being the modern forms of *yldra* and *yldest*. *Elder* is now used to denote not so much greater age, as the relation of precedence which is a consequence of being *older*. *Elder* cannot now be followed by *than*.

** These words are formed upon a false analogy. From the adverb *forth* are derived *further* and *furthest*. But there being no adjective in the positive degree except *far*, *further* and *furthest* were corrupted into *farther* and *farthest*, and set down as derivatives from *far*. Mr. Skeat (*Et. Dict.*) considers *further* to be made from *fore* by the suffix *-ther*.

116. The dissyllabic adjectives which do admit of suffixes of comparison are those ending in *-y* (*merry, merrier, merriest; holy, holier, holiest*) ; in -er (as *tender, tenderer, tenderest*) ; those in *-ble* (as *able, abler, ablest*) ; those which have the accent on the last syllable, as *polite, politer, politest; severe, severer, severest;* and some others, as *pleasanter,* pleasantest; narrower, narrowest.*

117. In Anglo-Saxon there were two superlative suffixes, *-ost* or *-est* and *-ema* (compare the Greek ιστος in *μέγιστος*, and the Latin *-imus* in *simill-imus, intimus*, &c.). There are a few superlatives in English ending in *-most : hindmost, topmost, inmost, foremost, uttermost.*† Most of these are derived from adverbs. They are not compounds of the adverb *most*, but double superlatives,‡ formed by the use of both terminations *-ema* and *-ost*. *Former* appears to be a comparative formed from the A.S. superlative *forma.*

118. Double comparatives and superlatives are common in the older writers as 'worser,' 'more kinder,' 'more braver,' 'the most unkindest cut of all' (*Shaksp.*) ; 'the most straitest sect,' &c.

ARTICLE.

119. The **Articles**§ are often classed as a separate part of speech, but they belong in reality to the class of **Adjectives.**

120. There are two Articles, the **Indefinite** Article **an** or **a,** and the **Definite** Article **the.**

121. The Indefinite Article **an** is another form of the numeral **one** (A.S. *án*). It indicates that we are speaking either of *some one,* or of *any one* of the things for which the noun is a name, as, 'I saw *an* old man'; 'A child (*i.e., any* child) should obey its parents.'

122. The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound or mute *h*, as *an apple, an heir.*

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* Euphony is the guide in this matter. The suffixes *er* and *est* were more freely employed by the earlier writers. Thus *e.g.* we find *unhopefullest* in Shakspere, *honourablest* in Bacon, *virtuousest* in Fuller, &c. In poetical diction comparatives and superlatives in *er* and *est* are allowed which are not usual in ordinary prose, such as *divinest, perfectest, properest.*

† The *r* in *uttermost, innermost,* &c., is merely phonetic, not formative. In Anglo-Saxon we find *hindemest, æftemest, innemest, foremest,* &c.

‡ It is likely enough, however, that some of these words (as *hithermost, middlemost, undermost, topmost*) were really formed under the false conception that *-most* was the superlative adverb. We even find the comparative *more* in the double comparative *furthermore.*

§ Latin *articulus,* 'a joint.'

An drops the *n*,* and becomes *a* before words beginning with a consonant, the aspirate *h*, or the letter *u* when the sound of *y* is put before the *u* in pronunciation, as *A man, a horse, a yellow ball, a useful book.* But *an* is kept before the aspirate when the accent is not upon the first syllable of the word, as 'an historical event.'

123. In some expressions what is now commonly regarded as the indefinite article *a* was originally a weakened form of the preposition *on* (= in). Thus 'Twice a week' was 'tuwa on wucan' (*Luke* xviii. 12. See *Koch*, ii. p. 85; *Morris, Hist. Outl.*)

124. The Definite Article **the** is used to define or mark the particular individual or individuals that we are speaking of.

125. The definite article *the* is a weakened form of the old demonstrative *se, seo, thæt*, which in Anglo-Saxon, besides its ordinary force, had the weaker force of the article. Afterwards, *se* and *seo* were supplanted by the forms *þe* (*the*) and *þeo* (*theo*).

126. The definite article is used in English before significant nouns.

(A) It is used to mark out or individualise out of all the things usually denoted by the name, that one to which attention is directed. It does this by directing attention to some attributive adjunct by which the individual is distinguished. Thus, when we say, *the black horse, the* points attention to the adjective *black*. When we say, *the Queen of England, the* points to the adjunct *of England*. It also indicates that particular thing with which we have some obvious connexion or concern as when we say, *the sun, the moon, the Queen, the City, the street, the Church*, &c.

(B) The word *the* is used to show that one individual is taken as the representative of its class, as when we talk of *the lion, the eagle*, or to show that we are speaking of the whole of the class to which the name belongs, as when we speak of *the stars, the English, the good, the Alps*.

PRONOUN.

127. Pronouns (Latin *pro*, 'for,' *nomen*, 'name') are words which **denote persons or things without being names for them**; as when the speaker, instead of naming himself or the person to whom he is speaking, says, '**I** am rich'; '**You** said so'; or uses a demonstrative pronoun to avoid the repetition of a noun, as '**John** has come home, **he** is very tired,' instead of 'John is very tired.'

Pronouns designate persons or things by indicating some relation in which they stand to other persons or things, and primarily to the speaker.

* In old English the form *a* or *o* is found for *an* (as *ae* in Scotch for *ane*) even when used as a numeral. We still say '*A* day or two'; 'They are both of *a* size,' *i.e.*, of *one* size.

f) = not to be learnt.

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

128. Pronouns are divided into two classes, **Substantive Pronouns** and **Adjective Pronouns.**

129. The term *Pronoun* is based upon the old use of the term *Noun*, including both the *Noun Substantive* and the *Noun Adjective*. Hence it is usual to include under this head certain demonstrative adjectives. These bear the name of *Adjective Pronouns*. When they are attached to substantives which are expressed, as *this man, each time*, they had better be called Demonstrative Adjectives, or Adjectives of Relation.

130. **TABLE OF THE PRONOUNS.**

	Substantive.	*Adjective.*
I. Personal	I, thou, we, you or ye	
II. Demonstrative	he, she, it, they	this, that, such, yon
III. Relative.	that, as	
IV. Interrogative and Relative	who, what	which, what, whether
V. Indefinite	one, aught, naught	any, other, some
VI. Distributive	... ...	each, every, either, neither
VII. Possessive	... ...	mine *and* my, thine *and* thy, his, her *and* hers, its, our and *ours*, your *and* yours, their *and* theirs.
VIII. Reflective	self and selves in myself, ourselves, &c.	self and selves in himself, themselves, &c.

The Nominative Case *I* is always written with a Capital letter.

I.—PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

131. The Personal Pronouns consist of

1. **The Personal Pronoun of the First Person.**
2. **The Personal Pronoun of the Second Person.**

132. The Personal Pronoun of the First Person is the

pronoun which is used when a person speaks of himself singly, or of himself in conjunction with one or more others, without mentioning any names. It is made up of the following (partly unrelated) forms :—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative Case....	I	We
[*Possessive Case*]....	[Mine *or* My]	[Our]
Objective Case	Me	Us

133. The Personal Pronoun of the Second Person is the pronoun which is used when we speak of the person or persons spoken to. It is declinable, and has the following forms :—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative Case ..	Thou	Ye *or* You
[*Possessive Case*] ..	[Thine *or* Thy]	[Your]
Objective Case.....	Thee	You *or* Ye

Ye was once exclusively nominative, and *you* objective (*ye* from A.S. *ge*, *you* from *eow*), but even the best writers sometimes used *ye* as the objective,* and now *you* is indifferently nominative and objective.

134. In Anglo-Saxon only the singular forms of this pronoun were used in addressing a single person. In ordinary usage the singular is now restricted to solemn addresses, as in prayer to the Deity and in poetry. In Shakspere's time the singular was also used as the pronoun of affection towards children† or friends, of good-natured superiority to servants, and of contempt or anger to strangers.‡ (*Abbott, Sh. Gr.* p. 153). At a very early period the plural came to be used in speaking to a single person. It was at first employed as a mark of special respect (as when a subject speaks to a king, or a son to his father), as though the person addressed were as good as two or more ordinary people.§ *You* and *your* are now the ordinary pronouns of address, whether we are speaking to one person, or to more than one.

135. The Personal Pronouns have, properly speaking, no Possessive Case, that is to say, no Possessive Case with the force of a *substantive*. In Anglo-Saxon, when the genitives of these pronouns were used in the *possessive* sense, they were regarded as adjectives and inflected accordingly. As the possessive sense is the only one in which we have retained these forms, they should now be regarded as adjectives. *My* and *thy* are short forms of *mine* and *thine*.

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* As 'His wrath, which one day will destroy *ye* both' (*Milton*). 'The more shame for *ye*, holy men I thought *ye*' (*Shakspere*).

† In Shakspere fathers almost always address their sons with *thou*, sons their fathers with *you* (*Abbott*).

‡ 'If thou *thou'st* him some thrice, it shall not be amiss' (*Twelfth N.* iii. 2). 'Prithee don't thee and thou me ; I believe I am as good a man as yourself' (*Miller of Mansfield*).

§ The use of the first person plural by royal personages may be accounted for in a similar manner.

136. The pronouns of the first and second persons do not mark distinctions of gender, because when a person speaks of himself or to another person, the sex, being evident, does not need to be marked in language by gender, and the plural forms may include persons of different sexes.

137. ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

First Person.			Second Person.		
Sing.	*Dual.*	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Dual.*	*Plural.*
Nom. ic	wit	wé	*Nom.* þú	git	gé
Gen. mín	uncer	úre (úser)	*Gen.* þín	incer	eówer
Dat. mé	unc	ús	*Dat.* þé	inc	eów
Acc. mé (mec)	unc (uncit)	ús (úsic)	*Acc.* þé (þec)	inc (incit)	eów (eówic)

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

First Person.		Second Person.	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nom. Ich, Ik, I	we	thou, thow	ye
Gen. min (myn) mi (my)	our, oure	thin (thyn), thi (thy)	your, youre
Obj. me	us	the, thee	yow

II.—DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

138. The pronoun which is used as a simple substitute for a noun that has already been employed is often called the Personal Pronoun of the Third Person. It is more correct to call it the **Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person.** It is inflected for number, case, and gender. It has the following forms :—

	Singular.		
	Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Neuter.*
Nominative Case	He	She	It
Possessive Case	His	Her	Its
Objective Case	Him*	Her	It

	Plural.	
Nominative Case	They	For all genders.
Possessive Case	Their	
Objective Case	Them	

139. The plural forms must be ambiguous as to gender, because they may be used when speaking of persons of different sexes, or of persons and things together.

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* *Him* was originally a *dative* case. It will be seen that the datives *him*, *her*, and *them*, like *me*, *thee*, *us*, and *you*, have supplanted the accusative forms.

140. *She* (*sche* or *scho*). The feminine of *se, seo, thæt*, has supplanted the form *heo*. *It* was in Anglo-Saxon *hit*. The *t* is a neuter suffix, like *t* in *what* and *that* and *d* in the Latin *i-d, quo-d*, &c. The regular genitive or possessive case of *hit* was *his*, as: 'If the salt have lost *his* savour,' &c. The possessive case *its* is of comparatively modern origin. It is found in Shakspere, but even there *his* is more common. There is only one example of it in the English Bible (*Lev.* xxv. 5).

141. The modern plural forms of this pronoun are borrowed from the demonstrative *se, seo, þæt*. The genitive plural *her, hir*, or *hire*, and the dative plural *him* or *hem* were in use for some time after *thai* or *they* was adopted for the nominative.

142. The genitive cases of this pronoun were not declined as adjectives in Anglo-Saxon, but may now be classed with the other possessives.

143. **ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.**

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	
Nom.	hé	heó	hit	hí (hig)
Gen.	his	híre	his	híra (heora)
Dat.	him	híre	him	him (heom)
Acc.	hine	hí (hig)	hit	hí (hig)

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*Of all Genders.*
Nom.	he	she, sche	hit, it	thei, they
Gen.	his	hire, hir	his	here (her, hire)
Obj.	him	hire, hir, here	hit, it	hem

THE DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES THIS AND THAT.

144. **This** and **That** may be used as **real demonstratives** (to point to things themselves). In this case *This* points to what is 'near me,' *That* points to what is 'at a distance from me,' as '*This* book,' '*That* chair.'

This and **That** may also be used as **logical demonstratives** (to refer to some description or name), as 'The general was in command of a large force. *This* force consisted of infantry and artillery.' 'They remained one day at Rome. *That* day passed without any remarkable event.'

When two things which have been already mentioned are referred to, *this* refers to what has been mentioned last, *that* refers to what

was mentioned before it; as 'Virtue and vice offer themselves for your choice: *this* leads to misery, *that* to happiness.'

145. When used as *substantives*, that is, without being joined to a noun, or requiring a noun to be supplied, *this* and *that* should be termed **demonstrative pronouns.**

146. The adverbs *there* and *here*, combined with another adverb, form compounds which are often substituted for *that* and *this* preceded by prepositions; thus *therein* = *in that*; *hereby* = *by this*.

147. **ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.**

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Mas.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*M. F. & N.*
1. *Nom.*	þes	þeós	þis	þás
Gen.	þises	þisse, þissere	þises	þissa, þissera
Dat.	þisum	þisse, þissere	þisum	þisum
Acc.	þisne	þás	þis	þás
Instr.	þýs	——	þýs	——

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Mas.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*M. F. & N.*
2. *Nom.*	se (þe)	seó (þeó)	þæt	þá
Gen.	þæs	þǽre	þæs	þára (þǽra)
Dat.	þam (þæm)	þǽre	þam (þæm)	þám (þǽm)
Acc.	þone (þæne)	þá	þæt	þá
Instr.	þý, þe	——	þý þé	——

It will be seen that *those* (þás) is properly the plural of *this*. When it replaced þá (*they*), a new plural, *thise* or *these*, was made for *this*. The neuters *this* and *that* in time superseded the masculine and feminine. *They* (þa) is a common provincial form in the sense of *those*. *Tho* is so used in Chaucer.

The instrumental case þy (*thy*) appears in the form *the* in such expressions as '*the* sooner *the* better,' = '*by how much* sooner, *by so much* better.'

III.—THE RELATIVE PRONOUN THAT.

148. A **Relative* Pronoun** is a word which **refers** to some noun or pronoun already used to denote the person or thing spoken about, and called the *antecedent* of the relative, and which **joins** the clause in which it stands to that which precedes it. Thus, in the sentence, 'He is reading about the battle that was fought

* *Relative* is a bad term, because it is insufficient. *He, she, it, this, that, they* are also (literally) *relative* pronouns, because they refer to some preceding substantive. The relative pronouns, however, differ from the demonstratives, by having a *grammatically connective* force.

at Hastings,' *that* refers to the noun *battle*, which is called the antecedent to the relative *that*, and joins the clause 'that was fought at Hastings' to the word 'battle' in the preceding clause.

149. The pronouns *who* and *which* are also used as relatives. In 'I have found the sheep *which* I had lost,' the pronoun *which* refers to *sheep*, and *sheep* is the antecedent to the relative *which*. In 'This is the man *whose* house we saw,' *whose* refers to *man*, and *man* is the antecedent to *whose*. The antecedent noun is often replaced by a pronoun, as '*He* to-day that sheds his blood with me, shall be my brother.'

150. That is the oldest of our relative pronouns. It is the neuter of the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative *se, seo, thæt*. All relative pronouns were once demonstrative or interrogative. In old English the relative force was given to the demonstrative pronoun by doubling the demonstrative word, an indeclinable particle þe (*the**), which was in fact only a weakened form of the ordinary demonstrative, being placed after *se, seo, thæt*. Sometimes the demonstrative dropped out, and the indeclinable *the* appeared as a relative; sometimes *the* was dispensed with, and the simple demonstrative itself was used as a relative. *That* is always a substantive; it may relate either to persons or to things. It is now uninflected,† and never has a preposition placed before it.

151. *That* cannot now be used in all cases where *who* can be used. A clause beginning with *that* limits or defines the noun to which it refers, and is therefore improper when that noun does not admit of further limitation. Hence we cannot say 'Thomas *that* died yesterday,' or 'My father *that* is in America.'

IV.—THE INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS WHO, WHAT, WHICH, WHETHER.

152. The pronoun **who**, neuter **what** (A.S. *hwa*, neuter *hwæt*) was in Anglo-Saxon an Interrogative pronoun.

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* The personal pronouns were also made relative by having this particle placed after them, as *ic the*, *thu the*.

† The want of inflexion was formerly supplied by putting the requisite form of the demonstrative pronoun of the third person where it would indicate the construction of the relative, Thus in Chaucer, 'A knight ther was . . . *That* from the tyme that he first began To ryden out, *he* lovede chyvalrye' (*Prol.* 43), where *that* — *he* = *who*. 'A litel clergeon . . . *That* day by day to scole was *his* wone' (*Prior. T.*, where *that* — *his* = *whose*. It answers to a well-known vulgar use of which :—'Let her take a jolly p'liceman, *Which* perhaps *his* name is X.' (*Thackeray*).

Modern Forms.	Anglo-Saxon Forms.		
		Masc. *Fem.*	*Neut.*
Nom. Who	*Nom.*	hwá	hwæt
Poss. Whose	*Gen.*	hwæs	hwæs
Obj. Whom	*Dat.*	hwám (hwǽm)	hwám (hwǽm)
	Acc.	hwone (hwæne)	hwæt
	Inst.		hwí (hwý)

153. What has the neuter suffix *t*. It is the neuter of *who*. It is now indeclinable, and is used not only as a substantive, but also as an adjective. When used as a substantive it is neuter.

154. Which (A.S. *hwylc* or *hwilc*), is a compound of *hwí* or *hwý* (the old instrumental case of *hwa*), and *líc* (*like*). In Scotch it is still *quhilk*. It was equivalent to the Latin *qualis*, 'of what sort?'* It is properly an adjective, as "Which dress do you prefer?" but is also used substantively, as "Here are port and sherry, which will you take?" *Which* asks for one out of a definite number; *who* and *what* ask indefinitely.

155. Whether (A.S. *hwæðer*) is derived from *who* (*hwa*) by means of the suffix *ther*,† and means 'which of the two?'

WHO, WHAT, AND WHICH AS RELATIVES.

156. From being simply *Interrogatives*, the above pronouns (like *quis* in Latin) easily acquired the force of *Indefinite* Pronouns, meaning *some* (or *any*) *one*, *some* (or *any*) *thing*, especially after *if* (*gif*). We still have this sense in the phrase, "As who should say," and in the compounds *somewhat*, *somewhere*, &c. They were then converted into *indefinite relatives* by the addition of *so*, often strengthened by the further addition of *ever* (the *who* of these last compounds being inflected), and finally assumed the power of ordinary relatives, dropping the *so* and *ever*.

157. Who refers only to persons, and does not by its form

* As "He wiste hwæt and hwylc þys wif wære," 'He would have known what and *of what sort* this woman was.'

† This *-ther* is the same as the *-ter* in *uter*, and the *-τερος* in *πότερος*, and implies a comparison or alternative between *two*.

mark gender, number, or person.* Its antecedent is sometimes omitted, as "Who steals my purse, steals trash."

158. What was the neuter of *Who*, and as a substantive in the nominative or objective only denotes a thing, and now† never relates to any antecedent except the neuter *that*, which, moreover, is always omitted.‡

The old genitive *whose* (= hwæs), however, is occasionally used as an ordinary relative in poetry, as: "The question *whose* solution I require" (*Dryden*); "I could a tale unfold *whose* lightest word," &c. (*Shakspere*). The dative has disappeared. The adjective use of *what* in the relative sense is seen in such sentences as "I gave him what help I could."

159. Instead of *what*, the ordinary relative relating to animals or things is **which.**

160. It is, however, quite a mistake to call '*which*' the neuter of '*who*.' It was formerly used like 'who,' as "Our Father, *which* art in heaven." In Chaucer it is followed by *that* ('which that,' or 'the which that'), and long after was preceded by *the*, as in the English Bible and Shakspere. (Compare the French *le quel*).

161. The proper correlative of *which* is *such* (A.S. *swylc*, a compound of *swȳ*, the instrumental form of the root of *swâ*, and *līc*, passing through the forms *swulc* and *sulche* to *such*), as "Such which must go before" (*Bacon*). *Such—which* = *talis—qualis.*

162. *Which* preceded by a preposition is often replaced by *where*, as *wherein* = *in which*; *whereto* = *to which*, &c.

163. *Who* and *which* can always be used where *that* § can be used. They have also a *continuative* force, which *that* never has. (See § 412.)

164. The relative pronoun is frequently understood, as, "That is the

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* *Who* (*wha*), as a relative, is first found in the Ormulum. *What* had been used as a relative somewhat earlier. "*That* came into use during the twelfth century to supply the place of the indeclinable relative *the*, and in the fourteenth century it is the ordinary relative. In the sixteenth century *which* often supplies its place; in the seventeenth century *who* replaces it. About Addison's time *that* had again come into fashion, and had almost driven *which* and *who* out of use" (*Morris*).

† In the older writers *all what*, *nothing what*, *that what*, &c., are common. "The matter what other men wrote" (*Ascham*).

‡ *What* is not a *compound word*, and therefore cannot be a *compound relative*. The laughable blunder is sometimes made of describing *what* as compounded of the beginning of *which* and the end of *that*.

§ Some grammarians think that *who* and *which* are not properly used to introduce a *limiting* or *defining* clause, and that in such sentences as "That is the man *who* spoke to us yesterday," "The house *which* he built still remains," the word *that* is preferable. The best writers of English prose do not seem to entertain this view.

person I spoke of," "for the person *whom* I spoke of." But it is not now omitted unless, if expressed, it would be in the objective case.

165. The word **as** (A.S. *ealswa* = *also*, i.e., *all so*, German *als*) is often used as a substitute for a relative pronoun, especially after *same* and *such;* as, "This is not the same *as* that;" "His character is not such *as* I admire."

V.—INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

166. The numeral **one** is also an **Indefinite Pronoun.**

The numeral **one** is a sort of indefinite demonstrative when used as the article *an*. It has long been used in the sense of 'some—or other,' 'a certain.' Thus (as an **adjective**) "His wrath which *one* day will destroy ye both" (*Milton*); "*One* Titus Oates had drawn on himself censure, &c." (*Macaulay*). As a **substantive,** "*One* in a certain place testified" (*Heb.* ii. 6). It is very common after *some*, *each*, and *every*, and is even used in the plural, as "That the poor may fall by his strong *ones*" (*Ps.* x. 10); "These little *ones*." As an indefinite substantive it assumed the sense of the French *on* (= *homme*), as, "A quiet conscience makes *one* so serene" (*Byron*); "A sonnet to *one's* mistress" (*Shakspere*); "*One* can hardly believe it." In this sense it at last ousted the old Anglo-Saxon word **man** (= German *man*), which we still find in Chaucer as **men*** or **me,** and which was also in part replaced by the indefinite *they*.

167. Aught (A.S. *âwiht*) is derived from the Anglo-Saxon substantive *wiht*, a 'thing,' which we still employ as a masculine in the noun *wight*, and *â* = *ever*. The negative of *aught* is **naught** or **nought.** The shorter form **not** is the same word.

168. Any (*ænig*) is a derivative from **án,** 'one,' just as **ullus** in Latin is a diminutive of **unus** (Key, *Lat. Gr.* § 334). In old English we find *ony*. It denotes either *number* or *quantity*.

169. Other means *one of two* (like the Latin *alter*). It is formed from the root *an*, a variation of the *al* of ἄλλος and *alter*, by means of the comparative suffix *ther* (see § 155, note). When used as a substantive it has the ordinary inflexions of a noun.

* The fact that *man* or *men* maintained its ground during the period when the influence of Norman French was strongest, and only disappeared after that influence had ceased, is opposed to the idea that the indefinite *one* is identical with the French *on* = *homme*. This view, however, is held by Latham and other good authorities.

170. Some (A.S. *sum*) originally meant 'a certain' (Lat. *quidam*). It still has this force in *somebody*, *sometimes*, *something*. It now denotes an undetermined part of a whole, and is used with numerals to give the sense of *about*, as "He will last you some eight year or nine year" (Shakspere, *Hamlet*).

VI.—THE DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

171. Each (A.S. *ælc* = *á-ge-hwylc*,* *i.e.*, 'ever every one of a sort,') is used both adjectively and substantively.

172. In the phrases '**each other**,' '**one another**,' the two pronouns were formerly independent in their construction, as "With greedy force each other doth assail" (*Spenser*), i.e., "*each* doth assail *other*." So in old-fashioned English we find '**each to other**,' '**one from another**,' and so on. Nowadays *both* pronouns are placed after the preposition, as "They did not speak **to each other** for a week;" "They hear **from one another** daily." The pronouns must therefore now be regarded as forming a sort of compound like the Greek *alleloi*.

173. Every (old English *everælc* or *everilk*, that is, *ever each*) is a compound of A.S. *æfre*, 'ever,' and *ælc*, and denotes all of a series taken one by one.

174. Either has two meanings. 1. It means 'each of two,' as, "On either side one" (*John* xix. 18). In this sense it is the modern form of the Anglo-Saxon 'ægðer' (ægther) = 'á-ge-hwæðer,' a compound of *á* = ever, and *gehwæther* = 'both', where the syllable *ge* has its collective force (see § 171, note). 2. It means 'one of two, but not both.' In this sense it comes from 'á-hwæðer' ('ever some one of two'), and has supplanted the form *awther* or *outher*, which has still a provincial use.

175. Either may be inflected as a substantive of the singular number, as "Where either's fall determines both their fates."
Each, every, either and **neither** are always singular.†

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* The particle *ge* was prefixed to the indefinite pronouns in Anglo-Saxon to give the idea of universality, as *ge-hwa* = *every one*; *ge-hwylc* = *every one*; *ge-hwæðer* = *both*. (Compare the German *Gebrüder* and *Geschwister*). These forms were strengthened by prefixing *á* = *ever*. Hence came *á-ge-hwylc* = *ælc* = *each*; *á-ge-hwæðer* = *ægðer* = *either*.

† The older writers were not clear upon this point. Shakspere frequently gives a plural sense to *every* and *neither*. Thus, "Every one to rest themselves betake" (*Rape of Lucrece*, 125); "When neither are alive" (*Cymb.* iv. 2, 252).

VII.—REFLECTIVE PRONOUNS.

176. The **objective case** of the Personal Pronouns, and of the demonstrative *he, she, it*, may be used in a **reflective sense** (Latin *reflecto*, 'I bend back'), when an action directly or indirectly affects the doer of it. Thus—

"I'll disrobe me" (Shakspere, *Cymb.* v. 1, 22.)

"I can buy me twenty" (*Macb.* iv. 2, 40).

"Prepare thee" (Sh. *M. Ven.* iv. 1, 324).

"Get thee wood enough" (*Tempest* ii. 2, 165).

"Signor Antonio commends him to you" (*M. V.* iii. 2, 235).

"Let every soldier hew him down a bough" (*Macb.* v. 44).

177. In Anglo-Saxon the personal pronouns, in whatever case they were used, were strengthened by having the adjective *silf*, i.e. *self* (=*same*, compare *selfsame*), agreeing with them ('I self,' &c.). This combination of pronoun and adjective is still seen in *himself*, *herself*, *themselves*, *oneself*, but in the case of the personal pronouns *self* came somehow to be regarded as a substantive,* and was preceded by the possessive case (*myself*, *thyself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*). This combination is now restricted to the First and Second Personal Pronouns, but was formerly (and quite as properly) used also for the Demonstrative of the Third Person, as 'his self,' 'their selves.'

We find from very early times the curious and puzzling idiom, that the strengthened reflectives in the dative case (*me-silf*, *us-silf*, &c.), were placed in apposition to pronouns in the nominative, in place of the simple adjective *silf* or *self* (*I me silf*, *we us silf*, &c.), or might be used as nominatives by themselves. The modern forms are still used in the same way, as "*I myself* heard it"; "*Myself* am Hell."

There is nothing *reflective* about *self*, either as adjective or as substantive (see, *e.g.*, "He himself said so"; "I love you for yourself alone, &c.). The reflective force belongs altogether to the pronoun to which it is appended, or, properly speaking, to the *verb* that denotes the *reflected action*.

VIII.—POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

178. Besides the simple possessives *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, we use the secondary or double possessive forms, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*. These are only used when the noun to which they relate is not expressed, as, "My pen is a bad one, give me *yours*." In modern English *mine* and *thine* follow the same rule.

* This substantive use of *self* is clearly seen in 'My own self,' 'Your own selves,' &c. The plural use of the substantive *selves* probably gave rise to the anomalous form 'themselves.'

VERB.

179. Definition. A **verb** is a word by means of which we can **say something** about some person or thing.

180. The word which stands for what is spoken about is called the **subject** of the verb, and is in the **nominative case.** In relation to the **Subject,** the verb is called the **Predicate.**

181. A verb tells us with regard to what is spoken about that it **does something,** or that it **is in some state,** or that it **has something done to it.**

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

182. Verbs are divided into two classes—

1. Transitive* Verbs. 2. Intransitive Verbs.

A **Transitive Verb** is one which denotes an action or feeling which is directed towards some object; as, *strike,* "He *strikes* the ball;" *love,* "He *loves* his father." The word which stands for the object of the action described by the verb is called the **object of the verb.** It is put in the objective case. The *grammatical* object of a *verb* must not be confounded with the *real* object of the *action.*

An **Intransitive Verb** is one which denotes a *state* or *condition,* or an action or feeling which is not directed towards an object; as, *to be, to dwell, to sit, to rejoice, to run.* Verbs of this kind are sometimes called Neuter Verbs.

183. Many verbs are used, with a difference of meaning, sometimes as transitive verbs, sometimes as intransitive verbs; as, "He *ran* away;" "He *ran* a thorn into his finger." "The child *speaks* already," "He *speaks* several languages." A transitive verb is used reflectively when followed by a reflective pronoun. This is often omitted,† as

* Latin *transire,* "to go across;" the action passes over, as it were, from the doer of it to the object of it.

† It is only in this case that a *verb* can properly be said to be a *reflective verb.* Compare the difference between *lavat se* and *lavatur* in Latin, and between τύπτει τινὰ and τύπτεται in Greek. Several intransitive verbs were once reflective, as, *ivon* (*went*), *abscond, venture, depart, consort, retire,* &c.

"The sea breaks (itself) on the rocks;" "The earth moves (itself)." In old English intransitive verbs were often followed by a pronoun used reflectively as, "Hie thee home;" "Fare thee well;" "Sit thee down." Some compound verbs are used curiously in this way, as. "To over-sleep oneself;" "He over-ate himself;" "Vaulting ambition which o'erleaps itself."

Transitive verbs are sometimes used with a sort of passive signification, as: "The meat cuts tough," *i.e.*, 'is tough when it is cut;' "The cakes eat short and crisp," *i.e.*, 'are short and crisp when they are eaten;' "The book sold well."

INFLEXIONS OF VERBS.

184. Verbs admit of the following modifications:—**Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, Person.**

These are expressed partly by **inflexion,** partly by the use of **auxiliary verbs.**

A verb is a *notional* verb, when it is so used as to retain its full and proper meaning, as "I *will* go" (*i.e.*. 'I am resolved to go'); "You *may* play in the garden". (*i.e.*, 'You are permitted to play').

A verb is an *auxiliary* verb when its own proper signification drops out of sight, and it merely serves to mark some modification of the notion expressed by another verb. Thus in "He *will* fall," '*will*' does not imply that he is resolved to fall, but only marks futurity. In "I work hard that I *may* gain the prize," *may* does not express permission, but helps to indicate the subjunctive mood of the verb 'gain.'

VOICE.

185. Voice is the form of a verb by means of which we show whether the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **doer,** or for the **object** of the action spoken of by the verb. There are two voices—

1. The Active Voice. 2. The Passive Voice.

The **Active Voice** is made up of those forms of a verb which denote that the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **doer of the action** described by the verb; as, "The boy *strikes* the ball." "The cat *killed* the mouse."

The **Passive Voice** is made up of those forms of a verb which denote that the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **object** of

the action described by the verb; as, "The ball *is struck* by the boy." The mouse *was killed* by the cat."

186. The same action may be expressed by either voice, but then the word that is the *object* of the active verb must be the *subject* of the passive verb.

In the strict sense of the above definition only transitive verbs can properly be used in the passive voice. But in English a noun (or pronoun) in the objective case following a verb and preposition, or the indirect object of a verb, may be made the subject of a complex passive phrase, as, "He spoke to the man—The man was spoken to." "They took great care of him—He was taken great care of." So, "He was promised a new coat;" "The dead were refused burial."

187. The **Passive Voice** of a verb is formed by prefixing the various parts of the verb **be** to the **perfect participle** of the verb. The perfect participle of a transitive verb is **passive** in meaning.

Some intransitive verbs have their perfect tenses formed by means of the verb *be*, followed by the past or perfect participle; as, "I *am* come"; "He *is* gone." Great care must be taken not to confound these with passive verbs. The sign of the passive voice is not the verb *be*, but the *passive participle* that follows it.

MOOD.

188. Moods* (that is **Modes**) are certain variations of form in verbs, by means of which we can show the mode or manner in which the action or fact denoted by the verb is connected in our thought with the thing that is spoken of.

189. There are four moods :—

A. Three Finite Moods.

1. **The Indicative Mood.**
2. **The Imperative Mood.**
3. **The Subjunctive Mood.**

B. The Infinitive Mood.

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* *Mood* comes from the Latin *modus*, "*manner*"; *Indicative* from *indicare*, "*to point out*"; *Imperative* from *imperare*, "*to command*"; *Subjunctive* from *subjungere*, "*to join on to*"; *Infinitive* from *infinitus*, "*unlimited*," i.e., as regards person, number, &c.

I.—THE FINITE MOODS.

1.—THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

190. The **Indicative Mood** comprises those forms of a verb which are used when a statement, question, or supposition has relation to some event or state of things which is regarded by the speaker as actual, and independent of his thought about it; as, "He *struck* the ball;" "We *shall set* out to-morrow"; "If he *was* guilty,* his punishment *was* too light."

2.—THE IMPERATIVE MOOD.

191. The Imperative Mood is a form of the verb by means of which we utter a command, request, or exhortation; as, "*Give* me that book." "*Go* away." The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is usually omitted, but may be expressed, as, "Go *thou* and do likewise."

When we express our will in connection with the first or third person, we either employ the subjunctive mood (as "Cursed *be* he that first cries hold"; "Go *we* to the king"), or make use of the imperative *let* (which is of the *second* person, with its subject omitted), followed by an infinitive complement, as, "Let us pray"; "Let him be heard." These are not imperative forms of *pray* and *hear*.

3.—THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

192. The Subjunctive Mood comprises those forms of a verb which are used when a statement, question, or supposition has relation to an event or state of things which is only *thought of*, and which is not treated by the speaker as *matter of fact*, independent of his thought about it.†

Hence the Subjunctive is employed to express a *will* or *wish* (as "Thy kingdom *come*"); in clauses denoting *purpose* (as "See that all *be* in readiness"; "Govern well thy appetite, lest sin *surprise* thee"); in clauses denoting the purport of a wish or command (as "The sentence is that the prisoner *be* imprisoned

* This *conditional use* of the Indicative Mood must not be confounded with the subjunctive or (as it is sometimes called) *Conditional Mood*.

† In modern English it is getting (unfortunately) more and more common to use the Indicative Mood in cases where the Subjunctive would be more correct. Thus for "See that all be in readiness," many people say "See that all *is* in readiness;" for "If that *were* to happen, they say, "If that *was* to happen."

for life"); to express a supposition or wish contrary to the fact, or not regarded as brought to the test of actual fact (as "If he *were* here he would think differently"; "Oh! that it *were* possible").

The nature of the Subjunctive Mood renders it impossible to use it in a *simple* declarative or interrogative sentence. Except in expressing a wish, a predication made in thought only is meaningless, except as related to some other predication. Hence the mood was called the '*subjunctive*' or '*joining-on*' mood, because it is only employed in *complex sentences*. (For a full account of this mood see the Appendix.)

A verb in the Subjunctive Mood is generally (but not always) preceded by one of the conjunctions *if*, *that*, *lest*, *though*, *unless*, &c.; but the Subjunctive Mood is not always necessary after these conjunctions, nor is the conjunction a part of the mood itself.

In modern English the simple present or past tense of the Subjunctive Mood is often replaced by phrases compounded of the verbs *may*, *might*, and *should*, which for that reason are called *auxiliary* or *helping verbs*. Thus for "lest sin *surprise* thee," we now commonly say "Lest sin *should surprise* thee."

193. The three finite moods of verbs may be described as the **Mood of Fact** (Indicative), the **Mood of Conception** (Subjunctive), and the **Mood of Volition** (Imperative).

THE VERB AS A SUBSTANTIVE.

1.—THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

194. The **Infinitive Mood** expresses the action or state denoted by the verb without reference to person, number, or time. It may be attached to a subject in dependent phrases, as "I saw *him fall*," "I know *him to be* honest." This use justifies us in calling it a 'Mood' (see definition). It commonly has the force of a substantive, and may be used either as the subject or as the object of another verb, or after certain prepositions (namely *to* and *but*). When thus used it is not properly a mood at all.

195. The preposition *to* is not an essential part of the infinitive mood, nor an invariable sign of it. Many verbs (as *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, *must*, *let*, *dare*, *do*, *bid*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *need*) are followed by the simple infinitive without *to*, as "You may *speak*"; "Bid me *discourse*"; "He made me *laugh*"; "I had rather not *tell* you."

196. In Anglo-Saxon, the infinitive mood ended in *-an*, and when used as such, had no *to* before it. A verb in the infinitive might be the subject or object of another verb. The infinitive was, however, treated as a declinable abstract noun, and a dative form (called the *gerund*), ending in *-anne*, or *-enne*, and preceded by the preposition *to*, was used to denote *purpose*. Thus in "He that hath ears to hear," *to hear =to gehyranne;* in "The sower went forth to sow," *to sow=to sawenne.* This gerundive infinitive passed into modern English with the loss of the dative inflection, as in "I came *to tell* you"; "The water is good *to drink*," *i.e., for drinking;* "This house is *to let*." Here the *to* has its full and proper force. From denoting the *purpose* of an action, the *to* came to mark the *ground* of an action more generally, and so may indicate the *cause* or *condition* of an action, as "I am sorry *to hear* this"; "I am glad *to see* you," *i.e.*, "*at seeing* you"; "*To hear* him talk (*i.e., on hearing* him talk), one would suppose he was master here." But this gerund with *to* came to be used in place of the simple infinitive, as the subject or object of another verb, and so we say, "*To err* is human, *to forgive* divine"; "I hope *to see* you." Here the *to* is utterly without meaning. We even find another preposition used before it, as "This is Elias which was *for to come*"; "There is nothing left *but to submit*."

As this infinitive preceded by *to* has come to us from the Anglo-Saxon gerund, it is called the *gerundial infinitive.*

2.—THE GERUND.

197. A **Gerund** is a **substantive** formed from a verb by the suffix **-ing,** and which, when formed from a transitive verb, has the governing power of the verb, as, "He escaped by *crossing* the river."

The gerunds of the verbs *have* and *be* help to form compound gerunds, as "He went crazy through *having lost* his fortune"; "He is desirous of *being admired*."

198. Gerunds are used either as subjects or as objects of verbs, or after prepositions, as "I like *reading*," "He is fond of *studying* mathematics.'

199. Participles (being adjectives) are never used as the subjects or objects of verbs, or after prepositions.

200. The gerunds in *-ing* appear to have had their origin in the Anglo-Saxon nouns in *-ung*. which, on being assimilated in form to the participles in *-ing*, got so far confused with them as to assume their power of forming compounds and of governing the objective case. We have merely modern forms of abstract nouns in *-ung* in such phrases as

"I go a (*i.e.* on) fishing"; "Forty and six years was this temple in building";* "I am a doing of it" (='I am in the doing of it'). When the verbal substantive in *-ing* has the article before it or is followed by *of*, it must be regarded as merely an abstract noun in *-ing*. When it governs an object (as in "He was hanged for *killing a man*"), it had better be regarded as a gerund. (See the author's larger Grammar). Sometimes, through confusion, the gerund governing an object has the article placed before it.

THE VERB AS AN ADJECTIVE.

PARTICIPLES.

201. Participles are verbal adjectives. They are so called because they *partake* of the nature both of a verb and of an adjective (Latin *participare*, 'to partake').

There are two participles formed by inflexion, the **Imperfect Participle** and the **Perfect Participle.** The imperfect participle always ends in *ing*.† When formed from a transitive verb, it may have an object, as, "*Hearing the noise*, I went to the window." The perfect participle in verbs of the Strong Conjugation ends in *-en;* in verbs of the Weak Conjugation it ends in *-d*, *-ed*, or *-t*.‡ The Imperfect Participle is always *active*, the Perfect Participle is *passive*, provided the verb be a transitive verb; as, "I saw a boy *beating* a dog." "*Frightened* by the noise he ran away."

Even in the perfect tenses, as "I *have written* a letter," the origin of the construction is, "I have a letter *written*," where *written* is an adjective agreeing with *letter;* in Latin, *Habeo epistolam scriptam.* In French the participle agrees with the object in some constructions; as "Les lettres que j'ai écrites." In Anglo-Saxon the perfect participle was inflected, and made to agree with the object.

202. The participles are often used as mere adjectives of quality, as "A *striking* remark"; "The *dreaded* hour has come."

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* Compare the Anglo-Saxon 'ge beoð on hatunge' '= ye shall be a hating' = 'ye shall be hated.'

† The termination of this participle in Anglo-Saxon was *-ende*, which was subsequently changed to *-inde*, and finally to *-inge*, *-ynge*, and *-ing*. In the Northern dialect the termination was *-ande* or *-and*. The essential letters of the suffix are *nd*. This suffix is akin to the Latin *-ent* or *-nt* and the Greek ovτ or evτ. We have now three totally different formations in *-ing*. 1. The abstract noun (as "*Seeing is believing*"). 2. The gerund (as "On *seeing* the danger he shouted to the man"). 3. The participle (as "The man, *seeing* the danger, stopped").

‡ The letter *y*, which is found as a prefix in one or two old forms (as *yclept* 'called'), and is affected by some writers in others, is derived from the Anglo-Saxon prefix *ge*.

TENSE.

203. Tenses (Latin *tempus*, 'time') are varieties of form in verbs, or compound verbal phrases made with the help of auxiliary verbs, which indicate partly the **time** to which an action or event is referred, and partly the **completeness** or **incompleteness** of the event at the time referred to.

204. There are three divisions of time—the Present, the Past, and the Future. There are also three ways in which an action or event may be viewed:—

1. It may be spoken of as **incomplete,** or still going on. A tense which indicates this is called an **imperfect** tense.

2. It may be spoken of as **complete.** A tense which indicates this is called a **perfect tense.**

3. It may be spoken of as one whole, without describing it as complete or incomplete in relation to other actions. A tense which does this is called an **indefinite tense.**

205. An action may be viewed in these three ways with reference to past, to present, or to future time. We thus get

NINE PRIMARY TENSES.

A.
1. The **Past Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that at a certain past time an action was going on, as, *I was writing; I was being taught.*
2. The **Past Perfect,** showing that at a certain past time an action was complete; as, *I had written; I had been taught.*
3. The **Past Indefinite** (or Preterite), speaking of the action as one whole referred to past time; as, *I wrote; I was taught.*

B.
1. The **Present Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that an action is going on at the present time; as, *I am writing; I am being taught.*
2. The **Present Perfect,** showing that at the present time a certain action is complete; as, *I have written; I have been taught.*
3. The **Present Indefinite,** speaking of the action as one whole, referred to present time; as, *I write; I am taught.*

C. { 1. The **Future Imperfect (or Progressive)**, showing that at a certain future time an action will be going on ; as, *I shall be writing ; I shall be being taught.*
2. The **Future Perfect**, showing that at a certain future time an action will be complete ; as, *I shall have written ; I shall have been taught.*
3. The **Future Indefinite**, speaking of an action as one whole, referred to future time ; as, *I shall write ; I shall be taught.*

206. From this table it appears at once that *perfect* and *past* are not the same. When we say, "*I have written*," although the act of writing took place in past time, yet the *completeness* of the action (which is what the tense indicates) is referred to *present time*. Hence the tense is a *present* tense.

SECONDARY TENSES.

207. Besides the primary tenses, we have the following :—

The **Present Perfect of continued action**—I *have been writing*.

The **Past Perfect of continued action**—I *had been writing*.

The **Future Perfect of continued action**—I *shall have been writing*.

COMPLEX FORMS OF INDEFINITE TENSES.

208. The Present and Past Indefinite Tenses are often replaced by compound forms made with the auxiliary verb *do*, thus :—

"You do assist the storm" (Shakspere, *Temp.* i. 1, 15).

"They set bread before him and he did eat" (2 *Sam.* xii. 20).

These forms become emphatic when a stress is laid upon the auxiliary verb. They are commonly employed in negative and interrogative sentences.

FORMATION OF TENSES IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

209. The **Present Indefinite** and the **Past Indefinite** in the Active Voice are the only two tenses formed by **inflexion.**

The **Imperfect** tenses are formed by the indefinite tenses of the verb *be*, followed by the imperfect participle.

The **Perfect** tenses are formed by means of the indefinite tenses of the verb *have*, followed by the perfect participle.

The **Future** tenses are formed by means of the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will*, followed by the infinitive mood: *shall* being used for the first person, *will* for the second and third in affirmative principal sentences; but in subordinate clauses, after a relative, or such words as *if*, *when*, *as*, *though*, *unless*, *until*, &c., the verb *shall* is used for all three persons; as, "If it *shall* be proved"; "When He shall appear we shall be like Him."

210. When the verb *will* is used in the first person and the verb *shall* in the second and third, it is implied that the action spoken of depends upon the will of *the speaker*. *Shall* (like *sollen* in German) implies an *obligation* to do something. Hence *shall* is appropriately used in commands (as "Thou shalt not kill"), in promises or threats (as "You shall have a holiday"), and in the language of prophecy, which is an utterance of the Divine will or purpose. *Shall* is used in the first person as a simple auxiliary of a future tense, on much the same principle as that on which a person subscribes himself at the end of a letter, "Your obedient humble servant." It implies a sort of polite acknowledgment of being bound by the will of others, or at least by the force of circumstances. By a converse application of the same principle, the verb *will* is used in the second and third persons to imply that the action referred to depends upon the *volition* of the person to or of whom we speak. In questions, however, and in reported speeches, the force of the verb *shall* is the same in the second and third persons as it would be in the answer, or as it was in the direct speech: "*Shall* you be present?" "I *shall*." "I *shall* not set out to-morrow"; "John said that he *should* not set out to-morrow." The verb to be used in a question depends upon the verb expected in the reply. We say, "Will you go?" if we expect the answer, "I will."

211. *Comparative Table of Tenses in English, Latin, Greek, French, and German.*

ACTIVE VOICE.—INDICATIVE MOOD.

	English.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	German.
Present.					
Indef.	He writes	scribit	γράφει	il écrit	er schreibt
Imperf.	He is writing	scribit	γράφει	il écrit	er schreibt
Perfect.	He has written	scripsit	γέγραφε	il a écrit	er hat geschrieben
Past.					
Indef.	He wrote	scripsit	ἔγραψε	il écrivit	er schrieb
Imperf.	He was writing	scribebat	ἔγραφε	il écrivait	er schrieb
Perfect.	He had written	scripserat	ἐγεγραφει	il avait écrit / il eut écrit	er hatte geschrieben
Future.					
Indef	He will write	scribet	γράψει	il écrira	er wird schreiben
Imperf.	He will be writing	scribet	γράψει	il écrira	er wird schreiben
Perfect	He will have written	scripserit	..	il aura écrit	er wird geschrieben haben
Perfect of continued action	He has been writing	..	..	.. ..	.. ..

USE OF THE TENSES.

212. The **Present Indefinite** Tense is used :

1. To state what is actually taking place, as, "Here *comes* the rain."
2. To state what frequently or habitually takes place, or is universally true, as, "It *rains* here daily ;" "Honesty *is* the best policy."
3. In lively narrations a person often imagines himself to be present at the events he is describing, and so uses the present tense (*Historic Present*) in speaking of past events.
4. It is used for the future when the real time is fixed by the context, as, "We *start* next Monday for the Continent."

213. Besides its ordinary use, the Past Indefinite Tense is used :

1. With the force of an Imperfect, as, "They *danced* while I *played*."
2. To express what happened frequently or habitually, as, "In those days people *ate* without forks."

214. The combination of the verb *be* with the passive participle may denote either an *action*, or the results of the action.* In "Every house is built by some man," *is built* is a present indefinite tense, of the passive voice of the verb *build*. In "This house is built of stone," *built* is used as an adjective.

TENSES IN ANGLO-SAXON.

215. In Anglo-Saxon the Present Indefinite Tense was also used as a Present Imperfect tense, and also as a Future, or even as a Future Perfect.

The Past Indefinite was also used as a Past Imperfect, as a Present Perfect, and as a Past Perfect. Compounds of the verb 'have' and the perfect participle were also used, but the participle agreed in case, &c., with the object.

Combinations of the verb *be* with an imperfect participle are found.

216. The greater precision of modern English in marking tense arises from its having become more of an analytic and less of an inflected language. Auxiliary verbs and prepositions are more exact than inflexions.

NUMBER.

217. Number is a modification of the form of a verb, by means of

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* In German different expressions are used. Compare "Der Brief wird geschrieben" (*i.e.*, the act of writing takes place') and "Der Brief ist geschrieben" (*i.e.*, 'the letter is in a written state'). The same was the case in Anglo-Saxon, which had a verb *weorthan* answering to the German *werden*.

which we show whether the verb is spoken of one person or thing, or of more than one. There are, therefore, two numbers in verbs, the **Singular** and the **Plural,** corresponding to the two numbers in substantives.

PERSON.

218. Person is a modification of the form of verbs, by which we indicate whether the speaker speaks of himself, or speaks of the person or persons addressed, or speaks of some other person or thing.

There are three persons.*

1. The First Person.

2. The Second Person.

3. The Third Person.

The **First Person** is used when the speaker speaks of himself either singly or with others.

The **Second Person** is used when the subject of the verb stands for the person or persons spoken to.

The **Third Person** is used when the subject of the verb denotes neither the speaker nor the person spoken to.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

219. The Conjugation of a Verb is the formation of all the inflexions and combinations used to indicate Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

220. There are two classes of verbs in English, distinguished by the formation of the Preterite. These are—

A. **Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.**

B. **Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.**

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* The inflexions by which Person is marked were originally Personal Pronouns. These can be traced in various languages. The characteristic consonants of the suffixes for the three persons were respectively (1) *m*, (2) *t* (softened to *s*, to which *t* was sometimes added), (3) *t*. We still see (1) *m* in *am*, i.e., *asm* (from root *as* or *es*); (2) t in *ar-t*, (i.e., *ast* with *s* softened to *r*), *st* in find-*est*, &c.; (3) *t* = *th*, softened to *s*, in find-*eth*, &c. (*Koch* i. p. 322.

THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

221. The preterite of verbs of the Strong Conjugation is formed by modifying the vowel-sound of the root.

This tense was originally formed by reduplication, that is by repeating the root of the verb. By the successive omission of the final consonant of the first root and the initial consonant of the second, and the weakening and ultimate blending into one of the two vowel sounds thus brought together, the resulting form appeared as if produced by modifying the vowel sound of the original root.*

The Perfect Participle of all verbs of the Strong Conjugation was originally formed by the (adjective) suffix -en and the prefixed particle ge. The suffix *-en* has now disappeared from many verbs, and the prefix *ge* from all.

This Conjugation contains no verbs but such as are of the old Teutonic stock of the language. If we disregard an occasional prefix the verbs that belong to it are all monosyllabic.

THE WEAK CONJUGATION.

222. The preterite of verbs of the Weak Conjugation is formed by adding *-ed*, **or** *-t* **to the stem,** *e* final (if there is one) being omitted, as **wait-ed, lov-ed, deal-t.**

The suffix *-ed* is pronounced as a separate syllable only after a dental mute, as in *need-ed, pat-t-ed, mend-ed.* The vowel *y* after a consonant is changed into *i* before it, as *pity, pitied.* After a sharp guttural or labial mute *ed* has the sound of *t*, as in *tipped, knocked.* In several verbs the suffix has vanished, though its previous existence is sometimes seen either in the weakening of the vowel of the stem, or in the change of final *d* into *t*, as *meet, met; bend, bent.*

223. This suffix is in reality a preterite form of the verb *do*, which was shortened in Anglo-Saxon into *-de* or *-te.*
It thus appears that in origin as well as in meaning, *I loved* is equivalent to *I love did*, or *I did love.*

224. The perfect participle of most verbs of the weak conjugation is the same in form as the preterite. It had its origin in an adjective suffix *-d* or *-t*, akin to *-tus* in Latin. The prefix *ge* has been dropped.

* So in Latin, the Perfect Tense of *facio* went through the stages *fae-fac-i, fe-fic-i, fe-ic-i, feci.*

This conjugation contains many verbs of the old Teutonic stock of English; some verbs once of the Strong Conjugation; all verbs of Norman, French, or foreign origin; and all fresh formations.

225. A.—VERBS OF THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

[Words in Italics are obsolete forms.]

1. *Verbs in which the preterite is formed by vowel-change, and the perfect participle has the suffix* -en *or* -n.

	Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
(*a.*)	blow	blew	blown	hold	held	holden *or* held
	crow	crew	crowed [*crown*]	fall	fell	fallen
	grow	grew	grown	lie	lay	lien *or* lain
	know	knew	known			
	throw	threw	thrown	slay	slew	slain
	mow	mowed [*mew*]	mown	see	saw	seen
				eat	ate	eaten
	draw	drew	drawn	beat	beat [*beote*]	beaten
(*b.*)	drive	drove *or* drave	driven	stride	strode	stridden
				strike	struck [*strake*]	stricken
	ride	rode	ridden			
	rise	rose	risen	strive	strove	striven
	smite	smote	smitten	thrive	throve	thriven
	chide	chid [*chode*]	chidden *or* chid	write	wrote	written *or* writ
	slide	slid [*slode*]	slidden *or* slid	bite	bit [*bote*]	bitten *or* bit
(*c.*)	bid	bade *or* bid	bidden *or* bid	spit	spat *or* spit	spit [*spitten*]
	give	gave	given			
(*d.*)	forsake	forsook	forsaken *	stave	stove *or* staved	(staved)
	shake	shook	shaken *			
	take	took	taken *	come	came	come [*comen*]

2. *In most of the following verbs there is a tendency to assimilate the vowel-sound of the preterite to that of the perfect participle.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bear	bare *or* bore	borne† *or* born	tear	tare tore	torn
break	brake *or* broke	broken *	wear	wore	worn
			weave	wove	woven

* *Took, mistook, forsook, shook, rode, broke,* are used as perfect participles by Shakspere and others.

† *Born* is now used only with reference to *birth*. *Borne* means *carried*.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
shear *	shore	shorn	climb *	clomb	[*clomben*]
speak	spake *or* spoke	spoken †	fight	fought	fought
			hang ‡	hung [*heng*]	hung
steal	stole	stolen			
swear	sware *or* swore	sworn			

3. *Verbs in which the vowel of the perfect participle has been assimilated to that of the preterite, or the preterite has been adopted as a participle.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
abide	abode	abode	tread	trod	trodden *or* trod
shine	shone	shone			
awake §	awoke	awoke	sit	sate *or* sat	sat [*seten*]
stand	stood	stood	get	got *or* gat	gotten *or* got

4. *In most of the following verbs the preterite in A. S. had* a *in the singular and* u *in the plural. Hence probably came the twofold forms of the preterite. The perfect participle has usually lost its suffix.*

	Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
(*a.*)	begin	began *or* begun ‖	begun	shrink	shrank *or* shrunk	shrunken ¶ *or* shrunk
	drink	drank *or* drunk ‖	drunken ¶ *or* drunk	spring	sprang *or* sprung ‖	sprung
	ring	rang *or* rung ‖	rung	stink	stank *or* stunk	stunk
	sing	sang *or* sung ‖	sung	strike	strake *or* struck	stricken ¶ *or* struck
	sink	sank *or* sunk ‖	sunken ¶ *or* sunk	swim	swam *or* swum ‖	swum
	spin	span *or* spun	spun			
(*b.*)	bind	bound	bound	slink	slunk	slunk
	find	found	found	stick	stuck	stuck
	grind	ground	ground	string	strung	strung
	cling	clung	clung	swing	swung	swung
	fling	flung	flung	win	won [*wan*]	won
	hide	hid	hidden *or* hid	wind	wound **	wound
				wring	wrung	wrung
	sling	slung	slung	run ††	ran	run
				burst ††	burst	burst

* Also of the weak conjugation.

† *Spoke, swam, drank,* &c., are used as perfect participles by Shakspere and others.

‡ There is also a transitive verb *hang* of the weak conjugation, which has got mixed up with the strong intransitive verb.

§ This verb has got mixed up with the transitive verb *awake* of the weak conjugation

‖ These forms are now usually avoided by the best writers.

¶ These forms are now used only as adjectives.

** It is a mistake to make *wound* the preterite of *wind* = 'sound with the breath.' That verb is only a modern adaptation of a noun, and ought to be of the weak conjugation.

†† In these verbs the vowel of the present has been assimilated to that of the perfect participle.

5. *The following verbs in A. S. had the following vowels:—*

Pres. **eo** ; *Pret.* Sing. **ea** ; *Pl.* **u** ; *P. Part.* **o.**

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
freeze	froze	frozen	heave*	hove	hoven
choose	chose	chosen	seethe	sod	sodden *or* sod
cleave*	clave	cloven			
fly	flew	flown	shoot	shot	shot [*shotten*]

6. *Verbs not included in the preceding classes.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
dig	dug	dug
(be)queath†	quoth	

B.—VERBS OF THE WEAK CONJUGATION.

226. Besides the large class of what are frequently called Regular Verbs, because the preterite and perfect participle are uniformly made by the simple addition of *-ed*, which includes all verbs of French or Latin origin, the following verbs belong to the Weak Conjugation :—

1. *Verbs in which the addition of the suffix* d *or* t *is accompanied by a shortening of the vowel-sound of the root.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bereave	bereft ‡	bereft	kneel	knelt	knelt
creep	crept §	crept	leave	left	left
deal	dealt	dealt	lose	lost	lost ¶
dream	dreamt ‖	dreamt	mean	meant	meant
feel	felt	felt	sleep	slept §	slept
flee	fled	fled	sweep	swept	swept
hear	heard	heard	weep	wept §	wept
keep	kept §	kept	shoe	shod	shod

2. *Verbs in which the suffix has been dropped after the shortening of the vowel.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bleed	bled	bled	meet	met	met
breed	bred	bred	read	read	read
feed	fed	fed	speed	sped	sped
lead	led	led	light	lit	lit

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* Also weak, *cleave, cleft, cleft ; heave, heaved, heaved.*

† To *bequeath* is 'to allot a thing by speaking.' Compare *bespeak.*

‡ Also *bereaved.*

§ In early writers we find *crep* for *crepte*, *slep* for *slepte*, *wep* for *wepte.*

‖ Also *dreamed.*

¶ In Anglo-Saxon (*for*)*losen* was softened into (*for*)*loren*, which is still preserved in *lorn* and *forlorn*. In a similar way *frore* is found for *frozen*. "The parching air burns *frore*" (*Par. Lost*, ii. 595).

3. *Verbs in which the addition of* d *or* t *is accompanied by a change in the vowel-sound of the root.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
beseech *	besought	besought	seek	sought	sought
buy	bought	bought	teach	taught	taught
catch †	caught	caught	think ‡	thought	thought
bring ‡	brought	brought	tell	told	told
sell	sold	sold	work	wrought	wrought

4. *Verbs in which the suffix* te *has disappeared, but has changed a final flat mute into a sharp mute.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bend	bent	bent	build	built	built *or* builded
blend	blended	blent			
gild	gilt *or* gilded	gilt *or* gilded	rend	rent	rent
			send	sent	sent
gird	girt *or* girded	girt *or* girded	spend	spent	spent
			wend	went *or* wended	wended
lend	lent	lent			

5. *Verbs in which the suffix has disappeared without further change.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
cast	cast	cast	set	set	set
cost	cost	cost	shed	shed	shed
cut	cut	cut	shred	shred	shred
hit	hit	hit	shut	shut	shut
hurt	hurt	hurt	slit	slit	slit
knit	knit	knit	split	split	split
put	put	put	spread	spread	spread
rid	rid	rid	thrust	thrust	thrust

6. *Verbs which have preserved the formation of the strong conjugation in the perfect participle.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
go	———	gone	shave	shaved	shaven *or* shaved
[en]grave	[en]graved	[en]graven *or* engraved	shew *or* show	shewed *or* showed	shewn, shown, shewed, *or* showed
help	helped	holpen *or* helped			
hew	hewed	hewn *or* hewed	sow	sowed	sown *or* sowed
lade	laded	laden			
melt	melted	molten *or* melted	strew	strewed	strewn, strown, *or* strewed
mow	mowed	mown *or* mowed			
rive	rived	riven *or* rived	swell	swelled	swollen *or* swelled
saw	sawed	sawn *or* sawed	wash	washed	washen *or* washed
shape	shaped	shapen *or* shaped	wax	waxed	waxen *or* waxed

* *Beseech* is a compound of *seek*; *k*, *ch*, and *gh* are only varieties of the guttural sound.
† The *t* is not radical. It is only used to indicate that *ch* has the sibilant sound.
‡ The *n* in these verbs is not radical.

7. *Verbs not included in the preceding classes.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
clothe	clad	clad	lay *	laid	laid
freight	freighted	fraught *or* freighted	say *	said	said
			have	had (*i.e.* haved)	had
work	wrought *or* worked	wrought *or* worked	make	made (*i.e.* maked)	made

8. *Tight* is a participle of *tie* (A. S. *tigan*). *Distraught* is an exceptional form from the verb *distract*. *Straight* is for *stretched*. *Dight* (shortened from *dighted*) is from A. S. *dihtan* = 'to adorn.' *Yclept* is from the old verb *clypian* = to call. *Go* borrows a preterite from the verb *wend*, properly *to wend* (*or turn*) *one's way*.

PERSONAL INFLEXIONS OF AN ENGLISH VERB.

227. The following table exhibits the personal *inflexions* of a verb. Let a single stroke (————) stand for the infinitive mood (without *to*), and a double stroke (═══) for the first person singular of the past indefinite tense.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.†
1.	————	1. ————
2.	———— est *or* st	2. ————
3.	———— eth, es, *or* s.	3. ————

Past Indefinite Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.
1.	═══	1. ═══
2.	═══ est *or* st.	2. ═══
3.	═══	3. ═══

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

	Singular.	Plural.
1.	————	1. ————
2.	————	2. ————
3.	————	3. ————

Past Indefinite Tense.

The same as in the Indicative Mood.

The suffix *es* is added to verbs ending in a sibilant (as *pass-es*, *catch-es*) ; *o* (as *go-es*, *do-es*) ; or *y* preceded by a consonant, as *fli-es*,

* The *y* in these verbs is a weakened form of the guttural *cg*.

† In early English the termination of the plural of this tense in all three persons was *-es* in the Northern, *-en* in the Midland, and *-eth* in the Southern districts: "They hopes" (N); "They hopen" (M); "They hopeth" (S).

pitti-es. If a verb ends in *ic*, *c* is changed to *ck* before *-ing*, *-ed*, or *th-e*, to preserve the hard sound of the *c*, as *trafficking*, *mimicked*.

VERBAL INFLEXIONS IN ANGLO-SAXON.

228.—A. Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.

Niman (*to take*).

Inf.—niman. *Imp. Part.*—nimende. *Perf. Part.*—(ge)numen.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1. nime	nimaþ	1. nám	námon
2. nimest	nimaþ	2. náme	námon
3. nimeþ	nimaþ	3. nám	námon

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1, 2, and 3. nime	nimen	1, 2, and 3. náme	námen

Creópan (*to creep*).

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1. creópe	creópaþ	1. creap	crupon
2. crýpst	creópaþ	2. crupe	crupon
3. crýpþ	creópaþ	3. creap	crupon

Let particular attention be paid to the inflexions of the Preterite Tense, especially the absence of *-st* in the second person singular, and the curious change of vowel.

229.—B. Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.

Lufjan (*to love*).

Inf.—lufjan. *Imp. Part.*—lufjende (lufigende).
Perf. Part.—(ge)lufod.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1. lufje (lufige)	lufjaþ (lufigeaþ)	1. lufode	lufodon
2. lufast	lufjaþ (lufigeaþ)	2. lufodest	lufodon
3. lufaþ	lufjaþ (lufigeaþ)	3. lufode	lufodon

Subjunctive Mood.

	Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
	Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1, 2, and 3.	lufje (lufige)	lufjen (lufigen)	lufode	lufoden

Imperative.—Sing., lufa. *Plural,* lufjaþ.

VERBAL INFLEXIONS IN CHAUCER.

230. The Infinitive ends in **-en** or **-e.** The Imperfect Participle ends in **-ynge** or **-ynge.** The Past Participle of Strong Verbs ends in **-en** or **-e** ; that of Weak Verbs in **-ed** or **-d** (sometimes in **-et** or **-t**), and often has the prefix **ge-**, or its weakened form **i-.**

The inflected gerund is occasionally found (as 'to seene,' *Kn. T.* 177).

The Present Indicative has in the Singular the suffixes (1) **e,** (2) **est,** (3) **eth,** and in the Plural **-en** or **-e** for all persons.

The same inflexions occur in the Preterite Indicative of Weak Verbs.

The Preterite of Strong Verbs has **-e** in the Second Person Singular, and **-en** or **-e** in all persons of the plural.

The Present and Preterite Subjunctive have **-e** in all persons of the Singular and **-en** in all persons of the Plural.

The Imperative ends in **-eth** in the Plural, and (in some classes of verbs) in **-e** in the Singular.

DEFECTIVE AND ANOMALOUS VERBS.

231. The verbs *shall, will, may, must, can, dare, wit* are *defective;* that is, have not the full complement of moods and tenses.

A peculiarity which all these verbs (except *will*) have in common, is, that the present tense is in reality a preterite of the strong conjugation, which has replaced an older present, and has had its own place supplied by a secondary preterite of the weak conjugation. One consequence of this is, that they **none of them take -s as a suffix in the third person singular,** as that suffix does not belong to the preterite tense. They take after them the infinitive without *to.*

232. **SHALL.**

Indicative Mood.

	Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1.	[I] shall	1. [We] shall*	1. [I] should	1. [We] should
2.	[Thou] shalt†	2. [You] shall	2. [Thou] shouldst	2. [You] should
3.	[He] shall	3. [They] shall	3. [He] should	3. [They] should

* In Anglo-Saxon the plural form was *sculon* or *sceolon.* Chaucer uses *shal* in the singular and *shul* in the plural.

† The *t* in *shalt, wilt,* and *art, wast* and *wert* is a very ancient form of the suffix.

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular...	1. [I] should.	2. [Thou] shouldest *or* shouldst.	3. [He] should.
Plural	1. [We] should.	2. [You] should.	3. [They] should.

In Anglo-Saxon 'I shall' often means 'I owe.'* Thus (in *Luke* xvi. 5) we find "Hu micel scealt thou"? ("How much shalt thou"?)

The verb then came to indicate obligation arising from some external authority, or the force of fate or circumstances. Thus "Thou shalt not steal"; "Ye shall not surely die," *i.e.*, "There is surely no edict that ye shall die"; "He demanded where Christ should be born," *i.e.*, 'was destined to be born,' &c. Compare § 210.

When *shall* (*should*, &c.) retains this meaning of *obligation* or *necessity*, it is a principal or notional verb. When it is used as a mere auxiliary, the idea of *obligation* disappears. (See § 184)

233. WILL.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] will	1. [We] will	1. [I] would	1. [We] would
2. [Thou] wilt	2. [You] will	2. [Thou] wouldst	2. [You] would
3. [He] will	3. [They] will	3. [He] would	3. [They] would

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense—Like the Indicative.

Will is followed by the infinitive without *to*; as, "He *will* not obey."

This verb is also used to express determination or intention. When used in this sense the verb may be conjugated like an ordinary verb.

This verb is also used to express the frequent repetition of an action; as, "When he was irritated, he *would* rave like a madman."

An old form of the present was *I wol*, or *I wole*, whence the negative *I won't*. In old English this verb was combined with the negative *ne*. *ic nille* = *I will not*, *ic nolde* = *I would not*. We still have the phrase *willy nilly* = *will he nill he*, or *will ye nill ye*.

234. MAY.

Indicative and Subjunctive Moods.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] may	1. [We] may	1. [I] might	1. [We] might
2. [Thou] mayest *or* mayst	2. [You] may	2. [Thou] mightest	2. [You] might
3. [He] may	3. [They] may	3. [He] might	3. [They] might

* According to Grimm *shall* or *skal* is the perfect of a verb meaning *to kill*. As killing involved the payment of the penalty or *wer-geld*, 'I have killed' came to mean 'I owe the fine,' and thence 'I owe' simply.

235. The forms of the Present Indicative in Anglo-Saxon were :

Singular, 1. mæg ; 2. miht ; 3. mæg. *Plural*, 1, 2, and 3, magon.

236. A collateral variety of *may* was *mow* or *mowe*, of which the past tense *mought* is used by Spenser (*F. Q.* i. 1, 42).

237. The verb *may* formerly denoted the possession of strength or power to do anything.* It now indicates the absence of any physical or moral obstacle to an action, as "A man may be rich and yet not happy"; "He might be seen any day walking on the pier," *i.e.*, 'there was nothing to hinder his being seen.' When thus used it is a *principal* or *notional* verb.

The verb *may* is often employed as a mere auxiliary of the subjunctive after *that* and *lest*. Instead of "Give me this water that I thirst not," we now say "that I may not thirst."

MUST.

238. This verb has now no variations of form for tense or person. When it refers to past time it is now usually followed by the perfect infinitive, as "That must have been delightful."

In Anglo-Saxon we find *Infinitive* mótan = 'to be able.'

Indic. Pres. Sing. 1. Mót ; 2. Móst ; 3. Mót. *Pl.* Móton.

Pret. Sing. 1 and 3. Móste ; 2. Móstest. *Pl.* Moston.
In Chaucer, *Sing.* 1 and 3. Mot *or* moot ; 2. Most or must ; *Pl.* mooten *or* moote.

239. The modern form *must* is borrowed from the old preterite, in which *s* is a softened form of the *t* in *mot* before the suffix *-te* (compare *wist*).

240. CAN.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] can	1. [We] can	1. [I] could	1. [We] could
2. [Thou] canst	2. [You] can	2. [Thou] couldest *or* couldst	2. [You] could
3. [He] can	3. [They] can	3. [He] could	3. [They] could

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indef. Tense. Like the Indicative.

* Thus in *Matt.* viii. 2, for "Thou *canst* make me clean" we find in Anglo-Saxon "Ðu miht me geclænsian"; in Wiclif's version, "Thou maist make me clene."

ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

Infinitive cunnan. **P. P.** gecúð.

Indicative Mood.

Pres. Tense. *Singular.* 1. cann ; 2. canst *or* canne ; 3. cann. *Plural* cunnon.
Preterite. *Sing.* 1. cúðe ; 2. cúðest ; 3. cúðe. *Plural* cúðon.

FORMS IN CHAUCER.

Infinitive. To conne. **Past P.** couth.

Present Tense. *Sing:* 1. can ; 2. canst *or* can ; 3. can. *Plural,* connen *or* conne.

Preterite. *Sing.* 1 and 3. coude *or* couthe ; 2. coudest. *Plural,* coude *or* couthe.

The *l* in *could* does not properly belong to the verb. It has been inserted to make it agree in form with *should* and *would.*

The old meaning of the verb is '**to know,**' a sense which it still bears in Chaucer, and which is preserved in the form 'to con.'

The adjective *cunning* is the old Imperfect Participle of the verb. The adjective *uncouth* is a compound of the Past Participle, and in Milton means "unknown" (*Lycidas,* 186).

OUGHT.

241. **Ought** is the preterite tense of the verb **to owe** ("He said you *ought* him a thousand pounds," *Shakspere*). It is now used as a present tense. "He ought to do it" means "He owes the doing of it."

The original meaning of the verb *owe* (A. S. *ágan*) was "to possess." The adjective *own* is the Perfect Participle of the verb (A. S. *ágen*).

WIT.

242. To wit (A. S. *witan*) means 'to know.' The present tense is 'I wot,' 'God wot' = 'God knows.' The Preterite Tense is 'I wist.'* The old participle is preserved in *unwittingly.*

The forms *wots, wotteth, wotted,* and 'I wis' are either mere blunders or affectations. 'I wis' is simply a mistake for the adverb 'ywis' = *certainly.*

In old English *nat* (i.e. *ne wat*) = 'Know not,' *niste* (*ne wiste*) = 'Knew not.'

DARE.

243. **I dare** is an old preterite, now used as a present. The third person is therefore properly *he* **dare,** not *he dares* (§ 231). The past tense now in use is 'I **durst.**' (The older form of the root was *daurs.*) *To dare* is also conjugated like an ordinary Weak Verb.

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* Respecting the form see *must,* § 238.

THINKS.

244. The impersonal **thinks** (in *methinks*) means '**seems**,' and comes from the Anglo-Saxon *thincan*, 'to appear.' The past tense is **methought**. It is not the same as the verb 'I think' (from *thencan*), though the latter verb (meaning 'I cause to appear,' *i.e.* to my mind) is related to the former as '*drench*' (=*make to drink*) is to '*drink*.'

LISTS.

245. "Me **lists**" = it pleases me. "Him **listed**" = it pleased him. This verb is sometimes used as personal; 'I list,' &c., like *please*.

WORTH.

246. "Woe **worth** the day" = 'Woe be to the day.' *Worth* is a relic of the old verb *weorthan* = to become.

NEED. HIGHT. DIGHT.

247. **Need**, though not a preterite, has been so far assimilated to the preterite-present verbs, that the third person is 'he need,' not 'he needs.' When thus used, the verb has the sense "to be under a necessity to do something." Where it signifies "to be in want of" it is conjugated in the ordinary manner. The third person singular *needs* must not be confounded with the adverb *needs* (*i.e.*, of need *or* necessity), as in "He must *needs* go through Samaria."

Hight (= 'was called') is the (reduplicated) preterite of an old verb *hatan*, 'to be called.'

Dight (from *dihtan* 'to adorn') is a perfect participle; a shortened form of '*dighted*.' Once used both as a present and as a preterite.

248. The Notional and Auxiliary Verb HAVE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] have. **Perfect Tense,** [To] have had.

Participles.

Imperfect Participle, Having. *Perfect Participle* (passive), Had.
Compound Perfect Participle (active), Having had.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] have; 2. [Thou] hast; 3. [He] hath *or* has
Plural. 1. [We] have; 2. [You] have; 3. [They] have.

Present Perfect Tense

Singular. [I] have had, &c. *Plural.* [We] have had, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] had ; 2 [Thou] hadst ; 3. [He] had.
Plural. 2. [We] had ; 2. [You] had ; 3. [They] had.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular. [I] had had, &c. *Plural.* [We] had had, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] shall have ; 2. [Thou] wilt have ; 3. [He] will have.
Plural. 1. [We] shall have ; 2. [You] will have ; 3. [They] will have.

Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. [I] shall have had, &c. *Pural.* [We] shall have had, &c.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Have [thou]. *Plural.* Have [you *or* ye].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(Used after *if, that, lest, unless,* &c.

Singular. 1. [I] have ; 2. [Thou] have ; 3. [He] have.
Plural. 1. [We] have ; 2. [You] have ; 3. [They] have.

Present Perfect Tense.

(Used after *if, that, unless,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] have had ; 2. [Thou] have had ; 3. [He] have had.
Plural. 1. [We] have had, &c.

(*a.*) **Past Indefinite Tense.**

(Used mostly after *if, that, unless,* &c.)

The same in form as in the Indicative Mood.

(*b.*) *Secondary or Compound Form.*

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.*)

Sing. 1. [I] should have ; 2. [Thou] wouldst have ; 3. [He] would have.
Plural. 1. [We] should have ; 2. [You] would have ; 3. They would have.

(*a.*) **Past Perfect Tense.**

(Used mostly after *if, that, unless,* &c.

The same in form as the Indicative.

(*b.*) *Secondary or Compound Form.*

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.*)

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. [I] should have had.	1. [We] should have had.
2. [Thou] wouldst have had.	2. [You] would have had.
3. [He] would have had.	3. [They] would have had.

When *have* is followed by a noun that implies some continuous act, as 'to have a game,' 'to have one's dinner,' &c., it may have also imperfect tenses like an ordinary verb.

Had is a short form for *haved ; hast* for *havest, hath* for *haveth.*

* After *if, though, unless, lest,* &c., the second and third persons are formed by *shouldst* and *should.*

249. In Anglo-Saxon the stem of the verb is *hab* (*Infin.* 'habban'). But the *b* is softened to *f* before a suffix beginning with a consonant. The personal inflexions are those of the Weak Conjugation.

For the infinitive or plural *haven* Chaucer uses *han*. He also uses *nath* (*ne hath*) = *hath not; nadde* or *nad* (*ne hadde*) = *had not*. Similar forms were used in Anglo-Saxon.

When the verb is used as a mere auxiliary of perfect tenses, the notion of 'possessing' has (now) altogether evaporated.

250. The Notional and Auxiliary Verb BE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] be. **Perfect Tense,** [To] have been.

Participles.

Imperfect, Being ; *Perfect*, Been ; *Compound Perfect*, Having been.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] am ; 2. [Thou] art ; 3. [He] is.
Plural. 1. [We] are ; 2. [You] are ; 3. [They] are.

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular. I have been, &c. *Plural.* We have been, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] was ; 2. [Thou] wast or wert ; 3. [He] was.
Plural. 1. [We] were ; 2. [You] were ; 3. [They] were.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular. [I] had been, [Thou] hadst been, &c.
Plural. [We] had been, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] shall be ; 2. [Thou] wilt be ; 3. [He] will be.
Plural. 1. [We] shall be ; 2. [You] will be ; 3. [They] will be.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular. [I] shall have been, [Thou] wilt have been, &c.
Plural. [We] shall have been, [You] will have been, &c.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Be [thou]. *Plural.* Be [ye *or* you].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After *if, that, though, lest*, &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] be ; 2. [Thou] be ; 3. [He] be.
Plural. 1. [We] be ; 2. [You] be ; 3. [They] be.

Present Perfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though, unless,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] have been ; 2. [Thou] have been ; 3. [He] have been.
Plural. 1. [We] have been ; 2. [You] have been ; 3. [They] have been.

Past Indefinite Tense.

(Used mostly after *if, that, though, unless,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] were ; 2. [Thou] wert ; 3. [He] were.
Plural. 1. [We] were ; 2. [You] were ; 3. [They] were.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.*)

Singular. 1. [I] should be ; 2. [Thou] wouldst be ; 3. [He] would be.
Plural. 1. [We] should be ; 2. [You] would be ; 3. [They] would be.

Past Perfect Tense.

(Used mostly after *if, that, though, unless,* &c.)

The same in form as the Indicative.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.*)

Singular. 1. [I] should have been ; 2. [Thou] wouldst have been ; 3. [He] would have been.

Plural. 1. [We] should have been ; 2. [You] would have been ; 3. [They] would have been.

251. ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

Inf.—beón, wesan. **Imp. Part.**—wesende. **Perf. Part.**—(ge)wesen.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

	1	2	3
Sing.	beóm (beó)	bist (býst)	býð
	eom	eart	is (ys)
Plural.	beóð	beóð	beóð
	sindon (sind)	sindon (sind)	sindon (sind)
	aron	aron	aron

Preterite Tense.

	1	2	3
Sing.	wæs	wǽre	wæs
Plural.	wǽron	wǽron	wǽron

* After *if, though, unless, lest,* &c., the second and third persons are formed by *shouldst* and *should.*

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

	1	2	3
Sing.	beó	beó	beó
	síe (sí, seó)	síe (sí, seó)	síe (sí, seó)
	wese	wese	wese
Plural.	beón	beón	beón
	síen (sín)	síen (sín)	síen (sín),
	wesen	wesen	wesen

Preterite Tense.

Sing.	wǽre	wǽre	wǽre
Plural.	wǽren	wǽren	wǽren

Imperative.

Sing.	beó	wes
Plural.	beóð	wesað

252. FORMS IN CHAUCER.

Infinitive—ben *or* been. **Past P.**—ben, been.

Indicative.

Present Tense.

Singular. 1. am; 2. art; 3. beth *or* is.
Plural. ben, arn *or* are.

Preterite Tense.

Singular. 1. was; 2. were; 3. was.
Plural. weren *or* were.

Imperative.

Singular. be. *Plural.* beth.

253. Inspection of the preceding forms will show that the conjugation of this verb is made up from three different roots. (1.) The present tense of the indicative mood is formed from the old Aryan root *as*, which appears in Greek and Latin in the form *es*. The *s* of the root is dropped in *am* = *a(s)m*, and softened to *r* in *art* and *are*.

(2.) The present subjunctive, the imperative, the infinitive, and the participles are formed from the root *be*.

(3.) The past indefinite tense of the indicative and subjunctive is formed from the root *wes* or *was*, *s* being softened to *r* in the plural and in the subjunctive.

In old English *nam* (*ne am*) = *am not*, *nart* (*ne art*) = *art not*, &c.

254. The Notional and Auxiliary Verb DO.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite, [To] do; *Imperfect*, [To] be doing; *Perfect*, [To] have done.

Participles.

Imperfect, Doing; *Perfect*, Done; *Compound Perfect*, Having done.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] do; 2. [Thou] dost; 3. [He] doth or does.
Plural. 1. [We] do; 2. [You] do; 3. [They] do.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] did; 2. [Thou] didst; 3. [He] did.
Plural. 1. [We] did; 2. [You] did; 3. [They] did.

254*b*. *Do* (when used as a notional verb) is not defective in Voice, Mood, or Tense. *Did* is a reduplicated Preterite. The forms *doest* and *doeth* do not belong to the verb when it is a mere auxiliary.

As a notional verb *Do* had also the sense of *put*. Thus *don* = *do on* = *put on*; *dup* = *do up* = *put up*, or *open*; *doff* = *do off* = *put off*; *dout* (*douse*) = *do out* = *put out*.

255. This verb *do* (A.S. *dón*) must not be confounded with *do* from A.S. *dugan*, 'to avail, to be strong, to profit,' which is used in the phrases 'That will *do*,' 'How do you *do*?' &c. Through confusion the preterite *did* is now used for both verbs.

256. For the use of the verb *do* in negative and interrogative sentences, see § 208.

257. Complete Conjugation of a Verb.

SMITE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite, [To] smite; *Imperfect*, [To] be smiting.
Perfect, [To] have smitten.
Perfect of Continued Action, [To] have been smiting.

Participles.

Imperfect, Smiting; *Perfect*, Having smitten.
Perfect of Continued Action, Having been smiting.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] smite; 2. [Thou] smitest; 3. [He] smites.
Plural. 1. [We] smite; 2. [You] smite; 3. [They] smite.

Present Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] am smiting; 2. [Thou] art smiting; 3. [He] is smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] are smiting; 2. [You] are smiting; 3. [They] are smiting.

Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] have smitten; 2. [Thou] hast smitten; 3. [He] has smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] have smitten; 2. [You] have smitten; 3. [They] have smitten.

Present Perfect of Continued Action.

Sing. [I] have been smiting, &c. *Plur.* We have been smiting, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] smote; 2. [Thou] smotest; 3. [He] smote.
Plur. 1. [We] smote; 2. [You] smote; 3. [They] smote.

Past Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] was smiting; 2. [Thou] wast smiting; 3. [He] was smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] were smiting; 2. [You] were smiting; 3. [They] were smiting.

Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] had smitten; 2. [Thou] hadst smitten; 3. [He] had smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] had smitten; 2. [You] had smitten; 3. [They] had smitten.

Past Perfect of Continued Action.

Sing. [I] had been smiting, &c. *Plur.* [We] had been smiting, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1 [I] shall smite; 2. [Thou] wilt smite; 3. [He] will smite.
Plur. 1. [We] shall smite; 2. [You] will smite; 3. [They] will smite.

Future Imperfect Tense.

Sing. I shall be smiting, &c *Plur.* We shall be smiting, &c.

Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. [I] shall have smitten, &c. *Plur.* [We] shall have smitten, &c.

Future Perfect of Continued Action.

I shall have been smiting, &c.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Smite [thou]. *Plural.* Smite [you *or* ye].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After *if, that, though, lest,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] smite *; 2. [Thou] smite; 3. [He] smite.
Plural. 1. [We] smite; 2. [You] smite; 3. [They] smite.

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* After *that* the present and past indefinite tenses of the subjunctive are expressed by compounds of *may*,—'That I may smite,' 'That I might smite,' &c.

Present Imperfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though, lest,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] be smiting ; 2. [Thou] be smiting ; 3. [He] be smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] be smiting ; 2. [You] be smiting ; 3. [They] be smiting.

Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] have smitten ; 2. [Thou] have smitten ; 3. [He] have smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] have smitten ; 2. [You] have smitten ; 3. [They] have smitten.

Present Perfect of Continued Action.

I have been smiting, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Identical in form with the Indicative.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. I should smite ; 2. Thou wouldst smite ; 3. He would smite.
Plur. 1. We should smite ; 2. You would smite ; 3. They would smite.

(After *if, that, lest,* &c., the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should.*)

Past Imperfect Tense.

(Used mostly after *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] were smiting ; 2. [Thou] wert smiting ; 3. [He] were smiting.
Plur 1. [We] were smiting ; 2. [You] were smiting ; 3. [They] were smiting.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should be smiting ; 2. [Thou] wouldst be smiting, &c.
Plur. 1. [We] should be smiting ; 2. [You] would be smiting, &c.

(After *if, that, lest,* &c., the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should.*)

Past Perfect Tense.

(Used mostly after *if, though, unless,* &c.)

I had smitten, &c. (Like the Indicative.)

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should have smitten ; 2. [Thou] wouldst have smitten, &c. ; 3. [He] would have smitten.

Plur. 1. [We] should have smitten ; 2. [You] would have smitten ; 3. [They] would have smitten.

(After *if, though, lest,* &c., the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should.*)

Past Perfect of Continued Action.

[I] had been smiting, [Thou] hadst been smiting, &c.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

[I] should have been smiting, [Thou] wouldst have been smiting, &c.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite. To be smitten.
Perfect. To have been smitten.

Participles.

Indefinite. Being smitten.
Perfect. Smitten, *or* Having been smitten.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] am smitten ; 2. [Thou] art smitten ; 3. [He] is smitten.
Plur. 1. We are smitten ; 2. You are smitten ; 3. They are smitten.

Present Imperfect Tense.

I am being smitten, Thou art being smitten, &c.

Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. [I] have been smitten, [Thou] hast been smitten, &c.
Plur. [We] have been smitten, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] was smitten ; 2. [Thou] wast smitten ; 3. [He] was smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] were smitten ; 2. [You] were smitten ; 3. [They] were smitten.

Past Imperfect Tense.

Sing. [I] was being smitten, &c. *Plur.* [We] were being smitten, &c.

Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. [I] had been smitten, [Thou] hadst been smitten, &c.
Plur. [We] had been smitten, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] shall be smitten ; 2. [Thou] wilt be smitten ; 3. [He] will be smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] shall be smitten ; 2. [You] will be smitten ; 3. [They] will be smitten.

Future Imperfect Tense.

I shall be being smitten, &c.

Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I shall have been smitten; 2. Thou wilt have been smitten; 3. He will have been smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] shall have been smitten; 2. [You] will have been smitten; 3. [They] will have been smitten.

Imperative Mood.

Sing. Be [thou] smitten. *Plur.* Be [ye] smitten.

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. I be smitten; 2. Thou be smitten; 3. He be smitten.
Plur. 1. We be smitten; 2. You be smitten; 3. They be smitten.

After *that* the present and past indefinite tenses are replaced by compounds of *may*, 'That I may be smitten,' 'That I might be smitten,' &c.

Present Imperfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though, lest,* &c.)

Sing. [I] be being smitten, &c. *Plur.* [We] be being smitten, &c.

Present Perfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] have been smitten; 2. [Thou] have been smitten; 3. [He] have been smitten.
Plur. We have been smitten, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] were smitten; 2. [Thou] wert smitten; 3. [He] were smitten.
Plur. [We] were smitten, &c.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should be smitten; 2. [Thou] wouldst be smitten; 3. [He] would be smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] should be smitten; 2. [You] would be smitten; 3. [They] would be smitten.

After Conjunctions the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.

Past Imperfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] were being smitten; 2. [Thou] wert being smitten; 3. [He] were being smitten.
Plur. [We] were being smitten, &c.

Past Perfect Tense.

Identical in form with the Past Perfect Indicative.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. I should have been smitten ; 2. Thou wouldst have been smitten ; 3. He would have been smitten.

Plur. 1. We should have been smitten ; 2. You would have been smitten ; 3. They would have been smitten.

After Conjunctions the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.

ADVERB.

259. Definition.—Adverbs are words which denote the conditions which modify or limit an action or attribute. This is what is meant by saying that **an adverb is a word which modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb,** as "He writes *badly*"; "The book is *too* long."

260. An adverb *adds something* to the meaning of a verb or adjective, but does not *alter* the meaning of the word itself. 'Writes badly,' means all that 'writes' means, and 'badly' besides. But this word 'badly' restricts the application of the verb 'writes' to a certain class of the actions described by it. Therefore we may also have the

Definition.—An Adverb is a word which adds to the meaning, and limits the application, of a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

261. Adverbs may be classified in two ways, (1) according to their syntactical force, (2) according to their meaning.

262. As regards their syntactical force adverbs are of two kinds :—1. **Simple Adverbs**; 2. **Conjunctive Adverbs.**

A *simple* adverb is one which does nothing more than modify the word with which it is used, as, "We arrived *yesterday*"; "He is coming *hither*."

A *conjunctive* adverb is one which not only modifies some verb, adjective, or other adverb in its own clause, but connects the

clause in which it occurs with the rest of the sentence; as *when* ("Come when you are ready"); *whither* ("Whither I go, ye cannot come").

Here *when* modifies the verb *are*, and *whither* modifies *go*.

263. Connective *Adverbs* must be carefully distinguished from *conjunctions*. The latter do not modify any verb, adjective or adverb in the clause which they introduce.

264. The following words are **conjunctive adverbs**: *When, where, whither, whence, why, wherein, whereby, wherefore, whereon, whereat, whereout, whereafter, wherever, as.**

265. Both simple and connective adverbs may be classified according to their meaning, as

1. **Adverbs of Time**: *Now, then, after, before, presently, immediately, when, as*, "*As* I was returning, I met him"), &c.
2. **Adverbs of Place and Arrangement**: *Here, there, thence, where, whither, whence, wherein, whereat, in, out, up, down, within, without, firstly, secondly*, &c.
3. **Adverbs of Repetition**: *Once, twice*, &c.
4. **Adverbs of Manner**: *Well, ill, badly, how, however, so, as.*

To this class belong the numerous adverbs formed from adjectives by the suffix **ly**, as *rightly, badly*, &c.

5. **Adverbs of Quantity or Degree**: *Very, nearly, almost, quite, much, more, most, little, less, least, all, half, any, the* ("*the* more *the* better," &c., see § 270). These are only a particular kind of Adverbs of Manner.
6. **Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation**: *Not, no, nay, aye, yea.*
7. **Adverbs of Cause and Consequence**: *Therefore, wherefore, why, consequently.*

FORMATION OF ADVERBS.

266. Adverbs are for the most part formed by inflexion, derivation, or composition, from nouns, adjectives and pronouns.

267. Adverbs derived from Nouns.

Needs (= *of necessity*), *straightways, noways*, and some others are old genitive cases of nouns. Adverbs of this sort were once more common.

* *As* is also a simple or demonstrative adverb. It is a strengthened form of *so*. 'As' = 'also' = 'ealswa' (A.S.)

Whilom (A.S., *hwilum*) is a dative plural, meaning 'at whiles' ('formerly,' 'on a time'). The adverbs in *-meal* were compounds of the dative plural *maelum*, 'by portions;' as *piecemeal*, *inchmeal* (*Shaks.*, *Temp.* ii. 2), *limbmeal* (*Cymb.* ii. 4).

Many adverbs are made up of a noun (originally in the accusative case) and a qualifying adjective, which have hardened into compounds. Such are

Sometimes, *always*, *otherwise*, *meantime*, *midway*, *yesterday*.

Many adverbs are compounds of **on** (weakened to **a**) and a noun,* as *afoot* (= on foot), *abed*, *asleep*, *ahead*, *aloft* (*on lyfte* = 'in the air'), &c.

In a similar way we get *indeed*, *betimes* (*i.e.*, *by-times*), *besides*, *forsooth*.

A few adverbs are derived from nouns by the suffix *-long* (formerly *linge*, answering to *-lings* in German) as *headlong*, *sidelong*, or *sidling*.

268. Adverbs derived from Adjectives.

The genitive suffix **-s** appears in *else* (formerly *elles*, the genitive of a root *el* or *al*, meaning *other*); *once* (for *ones*, from *one*), *twice* (formerly *twyes*), *thrice* (formerly *thryes* or *thries*), *unawares*, &c. *Much* (as in *much greater* = *greater by much*) and *little* were datives (*miclum* and *lytlum*). *Amid* = *on mid*; *abroad* = *on broad*, &c.

269. The common adverbial suffix in Anglo-Saxon was **-e**, the omission of which reduced many adverbs to the same form as the adjectives from which they were derived. Thus, "He smot him harde" became "He smote him hard." "His spere sticode faeste" = "His spear stuck fast." In Anglo-Saxon there was a numerous class of adjectives ending in **-lic**, the adverbs from which ended in **lice** (= *like* = *ly*), as *biterlic* (*bitterlike* = 'of a bitter sort'), *biterlice* = 'in a bitter sort of way.' As the adverbial suffix *-e* fell into disuse, the suffix **lice** (= **ly**) came to be treated as an ordinary adverbial suffix, and is appended to Romance as well as to Anglo-Saxon words, as *perfectly*, *divinely*.

Pronominal Adverbs.

270. These are formed from pronominal roots.

(1.) By the suffix *-re*, marking *place*;—*here*, *there*, *where*.

(2.) By the suffix *ther*;—*hither*, *thither*, *whither*.

(3.) By the suffix *-n* (A.S. *-ne*, the accusative masculine suffix): *then* or *than*, *when*.

(4.) By the compound suffix *-nce*, of which *-ce* (= *es*) is the genitive suffix:—*hence*, *thence*, *whence*.

(5.) By the Anglo-Saxon *instrumental* inflexion: *the* (= þy) before comparatives, as in "*The* sooner *the* better," *why* = *hwi* or *hwy*, and *how* = *hwu*.

What? has in old writers the sense of *why?* or *in what degree?*

* These must not be confounded with French compounds of *à* (= *ad*), such as *apart*, *apace*, *afront*, *apiece*.

271. Many adverbs are identical in form with prepositions, as *by* ('he rode by'), *on* ('come on'), *off* ('be off'). *From*, as an adverb, survives in *to and fro*. The adverbial use of the words is the older of the two.

272. Adverbs of Negation.

The old English negative was **ne**, put before the verb, while **not** is put after it, when the verb is finite. *Not* is a shortened form of *nought* or *naught* (*i.e.*, *ne-â-wiht* = *n-ever a thing*), and consequently is a strengthened negative, meaning 'in no degree,' or 'in no respect.' It was at first used to strengthen a previous negative,* just as Chaucer and other writers use *nothing* ("Nothing ne knew he that it was Arcite," *C. T.* 1521).

No and *nay* are only varieties of *nâ* = *never*. *No* is now used before comparative adverbs and adjectives, as *no further*, *no bigger*, and as the absolute negative, as "Did you speak? No." The affirmative particle *ay* or *aye* is the same as the Anglo-Saxon *â* = *ever*. (*For aye* = *for ever*.) *Yes* (A.S. *gese*) is a compound of *yea* or *ye* and the old subjunctive *si* or *sie* 'be it.'

273. Adverbs are sometimes used after prepositions, so as to serve as compendious expressions for a qualified substantive, as "I have heard that before *now*;" "He has changed since *then*." *Now* is equivalent to "the time *now* being;" *then* to "the time *then* being."

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

274. Some adverbs admit of degrees of comparison.

The comparative degree of an adverb is that form of it which indicates that of two actions or qualities which are compared together, one surpasses the other with respect to some condition of manner or degree by which they are both marked, but in different degrees. Thus, "John reads *ill*, but Thomas reads *worse*;" "I was but *little* prepared, but he was *less* prepared."

The superlative degree of an adverb is that form of it which indicates that out of several actions or qualities which are compared together, one surpasses all the rest with respect to some condition of manner or degree by which they are all marked, but in different degrees; as, "Of all these boys, William writes *best*;" "John was less cautious than I, but Thomas was the *least* cautious of the three."

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* In old English negatives were strengthened, not neutralized, by repetition. The old English form was such as 'They *ne* had *not*.'

275. The suffixes for comparison are now *-er* and *-est*. In modern English adverbs in *-er* and *-est* are seldom formed except from those adverbs which are the same in form as the corresponding adjectives, as *hard, harder, hardest; long, longer, longest,* &c. The usual mode of indicating comparison is to prefix the adverbs *more* and *most*, as *wisely, more wisely, most wisely.*

276. The following forms should be noticed

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
well	better	best
evil (*contr.* ill)	worse	worst
much	more	most
nigh *or* near	nearer	next
forth	further	furthest
far	farther	farthest
———	ere	erst
late	later	last
[*adj.* rathe*]	rather	———

PREPOSITION.

277. A Preposition is a word which when placed before a noun or a pronoun denotes some relation in which a thing, or some action or attribute of a thing, stands to something else. In, "I saw a cloud in the sky," *in* is a preposition, and marks the relation (of place) in which the *cloud* stands to the *sky*. In "Tom peeped through the keyhole," *through* denotes the relation (of movement from one side to the other) of the *act of peeping* to the *keyhole*. In "He is fond of music," *of* denotes the relation of the attribute *fond* to *music*. The noun or pronoun which follows a preposition is in the objective case, and is said to be governed by the preposition.

278. Things and their actions and attributes can only bear relations to other *things*. Therefore a preposition can only be placed before a word that stands for a *thing*, that is, a *substantive*. It connects the noun or pronoun which follows it with a preceding substantive, verb, or adjective.

ORIGIN OF PREPOSITIONS.

279. The original function of prepositions was to give definiteness to the somewhat vague ideas of the relations of actions to things, which were

* "The rathe (early) primrose." (*Milton, Lyc.*)

† The word *preposition* (Gr. *prothesis*) merely implies 'placed before' (Latin *prae* = *before*, *positus* = *placed*). As employed by the Greeks and Romans the term referred to the position of these words in compounds. (See *Priscian* XI., 2.)

expressed by the case-endings of nouns. They exhibit three stages of construction. (1.) They were prefixed to the verb, which they qualified adverbially, forming in fact a compound with it. (2). They were detached from the verb, but not prefixed to the noun. At this stage it is often difficult to tell whether we are dealing with a preposition or an adverb. (3.) They acquired the force of prepositions, and were prefixed to the nouns. The first stage is represented by such a sentence as "Bigstandaþ me strange geneatas" (*Cædmon*) = 'Stout vassals bystand me'; the second stage by "Again the false paiens the Christen stode he by" (*P. Langtoft*) = 'Against the false pagans the Christians he stood by'; the third by "He stood by the Christians."

280. From this it is obvious that the primary function of prepositions is to show the relation between an action or attribute and a thing. It is only through the intervention of an attributive word, which was afterwards dropped, that they came to show the relation of one *thing* to another. "The book on the table" = "The book lying (or being) on the table," and so on.

CLASSIFICATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

281. Prepositions may be arranged in the following classes :—

(1.) **Simple Prepositions.**

at	forth	of *or* off	till
by	from	on	to
for	in	through	up
			with

(2.) **Prepositions derived from Adverbs.**

a. **By a comparative suffix.**

after over under

b. **By prefixing a preposition* to an adverb.**

abaft (A.S. á-be-æftan)
above (A.S. á-be-úfan)
about (A.S. á-be-útan)
afore (A.S. on-foran *or* ætforan)
before (A.S. bi-foran)
behind (A.S. be-hindan)
beneath (A.S. be-neoðan)
beyond (A.S. be-geondan)
but† (A.S. be-útan)
throughout
underneath (A.S. under-neoðan)
within (A.S. wið-innan)
without (A.S. wið-útan)

(3.) **Prepositions formed by prefixing a preposition to a noun or an adjective used substantively.**

aboard (= on board)
across (from Fr. *croix*)
adown‡ *or* down (A.S. of dúne)
against§ (A.S. on-gegn, ongeán)
around *or* round
aslant
astride
athwart (A.S. on þweorh *crooked*)

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* The prepositions chiefly used are *on* (weakened to *a*), *by* (weakened to *be*) and *with*.

† This old preposition is often wrongly taken for the conjunction *but*. It means literally 'on the outside of,' and thence 'without' *or* 'except.' Thus "Bútan nettum huntian ic mæg" = 'I can hunt without nets' (*Coll.*)

‡ Literally, 'off the hill.' Dún = hill.

§ In *against*, *amidst*, and *amongst* the *s* is the adverbial genitive suffix (§ 268). The *t* is an offgrowth of the *s*. *Again* is the older form.

along (A.S. andlang *)	below
amid *or* amidst (A.S. on middum)	beside *or* besides (= by side)
among *or* amongst (A.S. on-gemang†)	between (= 'by two')
anent (A.S. on-efen *or* on-emn = 'on a level,' 'over-against')	inside
	outside, &c.

(4.) **Prepositions formed by prefixing an adverbial particle to a preposition :—**

into	until	upon	without
onto	unto	within	throughout

(5.) From the adjective *weard* (= Lat. *vergens*), preceded by the adverb *to*‡, we get in Anglo-Saxon the adjective *toweard*, meaning 'approaching, future.'§ *Toweard* and *toweardes* were used as adverbs, and then acquired the force of prepositions.

282. In Anglo-Saxon passive and other verbs might be used impersonally without a subject of any kind, simply to affirm that *an action takes place*. Participles are often employed impersonally in exactly the same manner, as, "Speaking generally, this will be found true"; "Barring accidents, we shall arrive to-morrow." Participles thus used are sometimes wrongly set down as prepositions, as *concerning*, *considering*, *respecting*, &c. In some cases these active participles have supplanted passive participles which qualified the noun. Thus, "considering his conduct" was "his conduct considered," just as we still say, "All things considered." *Notwithstanding*, *pending*, and *during* are participles qualifying the noun that follows in the nominative absolute. *Save* (Fr. *sauf*) and *except* are of French origin, and are remnants of Latin ablatives absolute. In old English, *out-taken* is found for *except*. In Shakspere we still find *excepted;* "Always excepted my dear Claudio."

Relations indicated by Prepositions.

283. The principal **relations** which prepositions indicate are those of **place, time,** and **causality.**‖

Prepositions were first used to express relation in *space*, then they were applied to relation in *time*, and lastly were used metaphorically to mark relations of *causality* or *modality*.

284. **By** means—(1) 'Alongside of,' or 'close to,' as 'Sit *by* me'; 'The path runs *by* the river'; 'We went *by* your house.' (2) If I arrive *by* ten o'clock, the time of my arrival is *close to*, or *just before*, ten o'clock. *By* and *by* properly denotes a time *close to* the present.¶ (3) It is natural to seek the

* From the old Anglo-Saxon preposition *and* = *opposite*, or *in presence of*, which we have in *an-swer*.

† *Gemang* in A.S. means an assemblage or multitude.

‡ The adjective (or adverb) *ward* (*weard*) forms various compound adverbs, as *northward*, *heavenward*, *Godward*. These are sometimes preceded by the preposition *to* as *to Godward*.

§ Hence 'inclining to,' 'favourable.' The opposite of this is 'froward' = *fromward*, and the negative of it 'untoward.'

‖ By *causality* is meant the *cause*, *reason*, or *purpose* of any action or event.

¶ Chaucer speaks of "two yonge knightes ligging *by and by*," *i.e.*, "lying side by side."

doer or instrument of an act in close neighbourhood to the locality of the action. Hence *by* came to denote the agent * or instrument.

For in Anglo-Saxon means '*in front of*,' '*before*.' From the idea of *standing in front of* came first that of *defending*, as when we say, 'To fight *for* one's king'; and then that of *representing* or *taking the place of* (compare ἀντί and *pro*). *Exchange* passes into the sense of *requital*, as 'He was punished *for* the crime'; or of *purpose*, as 'I do this for your good.'

Of and **off** are only various modes of writing and pronouncing the same word. The word indicates *movement* or *separation from* something, as in 'Get *off* that chair'; 'He comes *of* a good stock'; 'To buy *of* a person'; '*Of* a child,' *i.e.* '*from* the time when he was a child.'

That which comes from a thing was a part of it, or belonged to it in some way. Hence: 1. *Of* is used in the *partitive* sense, as in 'A piece *of* cheese,' &c. 2. *Of* denotes *possession*, as in 'The house of my father.'

A thing is made *from* the material of which it is composed. Hence we say, 'A bar *of* iron'; 'A stack *of* corn.' From denoting the *material* of a thing, prepositions came to denote the constitution or characteristic of a thing, as in 'A man *of* high rank'; 'A person *of* great wealth.'

A man's acts, works, or productions come *from* him. Hence we say 'He was led *of* the Spirit,' and speak of 'a play *of* Shakspere.'

A result springs *from* a cause. Hence *of* marks the *cause* or *ground* of an action or feeling, as in 'To die *of* a broken heart;' 'Fond *of*'; 'weary *of*,' &c.

To (spelt too in some of its adverbial uses) denotes the point to which a movement is directed, or (metaphorically) the object or purpose of some action (as in 'He came *to see* me'; 'They came *to* dinner').

With is a shortened form of the Anglo-Saxon adverb *wiðer*, formed by the comparative suffix *ther*, from an ancient root *wi* or *vi*, denoting *separation*. The ancient meaning of *with* (*wið*) is *from*, which we still preserve in *withhold* and *withdraw*. The notion of *separation* passed into that of *opposition*, from which *with* derived its ordinary Anglo-Saxon meaning of 'against,' still maintained in '*withstand*,' '*to be angry with*,' &c. *Opposition* implies *proximity*, and *proximity* suggests *association*, and so *with* came by its modern sense, as in 'Come with us.' In this sense it denotes *attendant circumstances* (as in 'I will come with pleasure'). Among the attendant circumstances of an action is the instrument with which it is performed.

With has supplanted the old preposition **mid** (= German *mit*).

Most of the above words are adverbs as well as prepositions.

CONJUNCTION.

285. Conjunctions are so called because they **join** words and sentences **together** (Lat. *con* = 'together,' *jungo* = 'I join'); but a word is not necessarily a conjunction because it does this.

* Compare the provincialism "That's all *along of* you."

Who, *which*, and *that* are connective words which are pronouns. *When*, *where*, *as*, &c., are connective words which are adverbs.

Definition.—Conjunctions are connective words, which have neither a pronominal nor an adverbial signification.

Prepositions show the relation of one *notion* to another. Conjunctions show the relation of one *thought* to another. Hence conjunctions for the most part * join one sentence to another.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

286. Conjunctions are of two kinds.

1. **Co-ordinative Conjunctions.**
2. **Subordinative Conjunctions.**

287. Co-ordinative Conjunctions are those which unite either co-ordinate clauses (*i.e.*, clauses of which neither is dependent on the other, or enters into its construction), or words which stand in the same relation to some other word in the sentence. They may be subdivided according to their meaning into

1. **Simple Conjunctions**:—*and*, *both*.
2. **The Adversative** or **exceptive conjunction**:—*but*.
3. **Alternative Conjunctions**:—*either—or*; *neither—nor*.

Both is the numeral adjective used as a conjunction.

Either is the distributive pronoun which represents the earlier *awther* or *outher* (§ 174), used as a conjunction. **Or** is an abbreviation of it. With the negative *ne* these give *neither—nor*.

But has ousted the older conjunction *ac*. *But* (A.S. *bútan*) was first a preposition meaning *without* or *except*, as in 'All but one' (A.S. *ealle bútan ánum*). When followed (like other prepositions) by a sentence stating a fact, instead of a noun or pronoun denoting a person or thing, it produced such constructions as "No man knoweth but my Father only [knows]," *i.e.*, 'leaving out the case that my Father knows.' From this *exceptive* sense it passed easily into the *adversative* sense.

288. Subordinative Conjunctions are those which unite sentences of which one is in a relation of dependence upon the

* The single exception is the conjunction *and*, which, besides uniting one sentence to another, may unite words which stand in the same relation to some other word in the sentence, as in "Two and three make five," where *two* and *three* stand in the same relation to the verb *make*; "Tom sat between John and James," where *John* and *James* are in the same relation to *sat between*.

other, that is to say, *enters into its construction with the force of a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb.*

289. Subordinative Conjunctions may be subdivided into

1. **The Simple Conjunction of Subordination** :—*that.*
2. **Temporal Conjunctions,** or conjunctions that express relations of Time :—*after, before, ere, till, while, since, now.*
3. **Causal Conjunctions,** or such as relate to purpose or consequence :—*because, since, for, lest, that.*
4. **Hypothetical Conjunctions** :—*if, an, unless, except,* &c.
5. **Concessive Conjunctions** :—*though, although, albeit.*
6. **Alternative Conjunctions** :—*whether—or.*
7. **The Conjunction of Comparison** :—*than.*

290. That was originally simply the neuter demonstrative pronoun used as the representative of a sentence to show its grammatical relation to some other sentence. Thus "I know that he said so" is virtually "He said so. I know *that.*" Clauses introduced by it may be the subjects or objects of verbs, or come after prepositions, as "In that he hath suffered being tempted" (*Heb.* ii. 18); "The sky would pour down stinking pitch, but that the sea dashes the fire out" (*Temp.* I. 2, 4).

291. Lest is a corruption of the A.S. phrase þỹ læs þe = 'that by so much the less' (Lat. *quominus*).

292. Unless is a compound of *on* and *less.* The older phrase was 'upon less than,' an imitation of *à moins que.* "He will be ruined unless you help him" means 'if matters *fall short of* (or 'stop *at less* than') your helping him, he will be ruined.'

293. The Temporal Conjunctions **after, before,** &c., and the conjunction **for** were originally prepositions governing a substantive clause beginning with *that.* When the conjunction *that* is retained, *after, before,* &c., had better still be regarded as prepositions.

294. Because was originally 'by the cause that,' **while** was 'the while that' (*while* = *hwil* = '*time*'), *that* introducing a substantive clause in apposition to the noun *cause* or *while.* **Now that** became the conjunction **now** in a similar way. **Albeit** (*all-be-it*) is a short concessive or imperative sentence.

295. Than originally meant *when.* It was employed to introduce an elliptical sentence expressing the standard of comparison. "He came sooner than I expected" meant "When I expected [him to come soon] he came sooner," "John is taller than Charles" meant "When Charles [is tall], *i.e.*, when the tallness of Charles is regarded, John is taller." But the real meaning of *than* has so entirely evaporated, that it may now be regarded as a Conjunction.

INTERJECTION.

296. Interjections are words which are used to express some emotion of the mind, but do not enter into the construction of sentences; as, *Oh! O! Ah! Ha! Alas! Fie! Pshaw! Hurrah!*

In written language interjections are usually followed by what is called a mark of admiration (!).

COMPOSITION AND DERIVATION.

297. Words may be divided into two classes—*primary* words, and *secondary* or *derivative* words.

A word is a *primary* word when it does not admit of being resolved into simpler elements; as *man*, *horse*, *run*.

A word is a *secondary* word when it is made up of significant parts, which exist either separately or in other combinations.

Secondary words are formed partly by *Composition*, partly by *Derivation*.

COMPOSITION.

298. A word is a *compound* word when it is made up of two or more parts, each of which is a significant word by itself; as *apple-tree*, *tea-spoon*, *spend-thrift*.

All compounds admit of being divided primarily into two words; but one of these may itself be a compound word, so that the entire word may be separated into three or four words; as *midshipman* (made up of *man* and *midship*, *midship* being itself made up of *mid* and *ship*).

299. In most compound words it is the first word which modifies the meaning of the second. *Rosebush* means a particular kind of *bush*, namely, one that bears roses. The accent is placed upon the modifying word when the amalgamation is complete. When the two elements of the compound are only partially blended, a hyphen is put between them, and the accent falls equally on both parts of the compound, as in *knee-deep*. *Composition* is accompanied by *limitation* of significance. Compare *red breast* and *redbreast*, *monk's hood* and *monkshood*.

A.—COMPOUND NOUNS.

300. Compound Nouns exhibit the following combinations :—

1. A noun preceded by a noun, as *haystack*, *cornfield*, *oaktree*, *teaspoon*. The first noun may be a defining genitive, as *swordsman*.

2. A noun preceded and modified by an adjective, as *roundhead*, *blackbird*, *quicksilver*, *Northampton*, *midday*, *midriff* (A.S. *hrif* = bowels). *Twilight* (*twi* = *two*), *fortnight* (i.e., *fourteen-nights*), *sennight* (i.e., *seven nights*) are from numerals.

3. A noun preceded by a verb of which it is the object, as *stopgap*, *pickpocket*, *makeweight*, *turncock*, *wagtail*, *spitfire*.

4. A noun denoting an agent preceded by what would be the object of the corresponding verb, as *man-slayer*, *peace-maker*.

5. A gerund preceded by a governed noun, as *wire-pulling*.

6. A verb preceded by a noun, as *godsend* (very rare).

7. A noun preceded by an adverb, which modifies (adverbially) the noun, when that denotes an action, as *forethought*, *neighbour* (A.S. *neah-bûr* = 'one who dwells near'), *off-shoot*, *aftertaste*, *by-path*, *anvil* (A.S. *anfilt* or *onfilt*, from *fillian* 'to strike').

8. A noun preceded and governed by a preposition, as *forenoon*.

9. A verb preceded or followed by an adverb which modifies it, as *inlet*, *welfare*, *onset*, *go-between*, *standstill*, *income*.

301. The following compound nouns, in which one or both of the elements have been changed or become obsolete, are given by Koch (iii. *p.* 98 *f.*).

hangnail	= ang-naegele	(*a sore under the nail*)
bandog	= bond-dog	(*a dog chained up*)
barn	= bere-ærn	(*barley house*)
brimstone	= bryn-stân	(*burning-stone*)
bridal	= brŷd-ealu	(*bride-ale*)
distaff	= dise-stæf	(*flax-staff*)
garlic, hemlock	from leâc	(*leek*)
gospel	= god-spell	(*good news*, or *God's message*)
grunsel	= grund-syl	(*ground-sill*, *threshold*)
huzzy	= hûs-wîf	(*house-wife*)
icicle	= îs-gicel	(provincial, *ice-shoggle*)
lammas	= hlâf-messe	(*loaf-mass*)
moldwarp or *mole*	= molde-weorp	(*mould-thrower*)
midwife	= mêd-wîf	(*hired woman*)
nostril	= nas-þyrl	(*nose-hole*. Comp. *drill*)
orchard	= ort-geard	(*wort-* or *root-garden*)
stirrup	= stîg-râp	(*mounting-rope*)
steward	= stige-weard	(*sty-* or *stall-warden*)
shelter	= scyld-truma	(*troop-shield*)
tadpole	= toad-in-pool	
wedlock	= wedlâc	(*pledge gift*),
world	= wer-eld	(*man-age*, *a generation*)
leman	= leof-man	(*loved* or *dear person*)

B.—COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

302.—Compound Adjectives exhibit the following combinations :—

1. An adjective preceded by a noun, which qualifies it adverbially (comp. § 267), as *sky-blue, fire-new, pitch-dark, blood-red, ankle-deep, breast-high, head-strong, childlike, hopeful* (and other compounds of *full*, once formed with the noun in the genitive, as *willesful* = *wilful*), *shamefaced* (originally *shamefast*, A.S. *sceamfæst*), *steadfast.*

2. The adjective in these compounds is often a participle, as in *seafaring, bed-ridden, heart-broken, tempest-tossed, sea-girt*, &c.

3. An imperfect participle preceded by its object, as *tale-bearing, heart-rending, time-serving*, &c.

4. An adjective or participle preceded by a simple adverb, as *upright, downright, under-done, out-spoken, inborn, almighty.*

5. A noun preceded by an adjective, as *barefoot, two-fold, manifold*, a *three-bottle* man, a *twopenny* cake, a *three-foot* rule. (Compare the nick-names *Hotspur, Longshanks, Roundhead*, &c.) In modern English these compounds have taken the participial ending, *bare-legged, one-eyed*, &c.

C.—COMPOUND PRONOUNS.

303. See the section on Pronouns.

D.—COMPOUND VERBS.

304. These present the following combinations :—

1. A verb preceded by a separable adverb, as *overdo, understand.*

2. A verb preceded by its object, as *back-bite, brow-beat.*

3. A verb preceded by its complement, as *white-wash, rough-hew.*

4. A verb followed by an adverb, as *don*=*do* or *put on, doff*=*do* or *put off, dout* or *douse*=*do out, dup*=*do up.* (Comp. Germ. *aufthun.*)

DERIVATION.

305. Most words in all languages have been built up by the combination of simpler elements. Words generally admit of being arranged in groups, all the words belonging to each of which have a certain portion which is common to all, and which represents a certain fundamental notion.

306.—Thus, *love* is common to all the words [*he*] *loves, loving, lover, loveable, lovely, loveless*, &c. So in Latin, *fac* is common to *facio, feci, factum, factor, efficio, factio, facies*, &c. This common fundamental part of a group of words is called a *root.*

307. In the course of time a large number of the formative elements by which words have been formed from roots, or from other words, have lost their independent existence and significance, and have been reduced to mere prefixes and suffixes; and frequently have vanished altogether.

308. *Derivation*, in the wider sense of the term, includes all processes by which words are formed from roots, or from other words. In practice, however, *derivation* excludes *composition*, which is the putting together of words both or all of which retain an independent existence, and *inflexion*, which is the name given to those changes in certain classes of words by which the varieties of their *grammatical* relations are indicated. (See § 28.)

310. The addition of a syllable for inflexion or derivation often causes the weakening of the vowel sound of a preceding syllable. Compare *nātion* with *nătional*; *vain* with *vanity*; *child* with *children*; *cock* with *chicken*; *long* with *linger*; *old* with *elder*; *broad* with *breadth*. A weakened vowel sound marks a derived word.

DERIVATION BY MEANS OF TEUTONIC PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

DERIVED NOUNS.

311. Noun Prefixes of Teutonic Origin.

1. **un**; as in *unrest*, *undress*.

2. **mis**; as in *misdeed*, *mishap*, *mistrust*, *misconduct*. This prefix (connected with the verb **miss**, and the Old English **mys** = *evil*) implies error or fault in the action referred to. In many words of Romance origin, as *mischance*, *mis* = Old French *mes*, from Lat. *minus*.

Noun Suffixes of Teutonic Origin.

312. 1. Suffixes denoting a person or the doer of an action.

-er or **-ar**,—*singer*, *baker*, *beggar*, *liar*.

-ster (originally denoting female agent),—*spinster*, *maltster*, *tapster*.

-ter, **-ther**, **-der**,—*father*, *daughter*, *spider* (= *spinder* or *spinner*).

-nd (old imperfect participle), *fiend*, *friend* (from Gothic *fijan* 'to hate' and *frijon* 'to love').

313. 2. Suffixes denoting an instrument.

-el, **-le**,—*shovel*, *girdle*, *shuttle*.

-ter, **-der**,—*ladder*, *rudder*.

314. 3. Suffixes forming Abstract Nouns.

-dom (connected with *deem* and *doom*, implying condition or sphere of action),—*kingdom, earldom, thraldom, martyrdom, Christendom.*

-hood, -head (A.S. = person, state, condition),—*manhood, priesthood, childhood, godhead.*

-red (A.S. *ræd* = counsel, power, state),—*hatred, kindred.*

-ship, -scape, -skip (denoting *shape, fashion*),—*friendship, hardship, worship* (i.e. *worth-ship*), *landscape* or *landskip.*

-ing,—*hunting, blessing, flooring, clothing.*

-ness,—*redness, goodness, witness.*

-th, -t, -(s)t, -d, *growth, health, death* (die), *gift, might* (may), *theft, flight, rift* (rive), *mirth* (merry), *trust, flood.*

315. 4. Suffixes forming Diminutives.

-en;—*maiden, kitten, chicken* (cock).

-el, -le—*satchel* (sack), *paddle* (= spaddle, from spade).

-rel; *cockerel, mongrel, gangrel, wastrel.*

-kin; *lambkin, pipkin, mannikin, Perkin* (= *Peterkin*), *Tomkin, Wilkin*, &c.

-ling;—*duckling, kidling, darling, suckling, hireling, starveling.*

-ock;—*hillock, bullock, ruddock* (robin red-breast), *pinnock* (tom-tit), *Pollock* (Paul), *Baldock* (Baldwin), &c.

-y, -ie, ey;—*daddy, Annie, Charley* or *Charlie.*

316. 5. Patronymics.

-ing (= son of); *Browning.* Common in A.S., as *Elising*, son of *Elisa* or *Elisha*). **-kin, -son, -ock,** and the possessive **-s** are also used in patronymics; *Wilkin, Wilson, Wilkins, Pollock.*

DERIVED ADJECTIVES.

Adjective Prefixes of Teutonic Origin.

317. 1. **a**, *alive, aweary. Athirst* is in A.S. *of-þyrst.*

2. **a**, a corruption of *ge*,—*alike*=*gelic.*

3. **un** (negative, not the same as the *un* in verbs); *unwise, untrue*, and before Romance words, as *uncourteous.*

Adjective Suffixes (Teutonic).

318. **-ed**; the common participial suffix. Also added to nouns, as in *ragged, wretched, left-handed*, &c.

-en or **-n** (used also as a participial suffix); *wooden, golden, linen* (from *lin*=*flax*), *heathen* (a dweller on the *heath*), *green, fain*, &c.

-er or **-r**; *bitter, lither, fair.*

-ern (a compound of the two last); *northern, southern,* &c.

-el or **-le** (A.S. **-ol**), *fickle, little, brittle, idle.*

-ard or **-art** (= *hard*, A.S. *heard*, gives an intensive force), added to adjectives and verbs, as *dullard, drunkard, laggard, dotard, braggart, blinkard, stinkard, coward* (*codardo* from Lat. *cauda*; properly a dog that runs away with his *tail* between his legs).

-ish, -sh, -ch added to nouns to denote 'belonging to,' 'having the qualities of,' as *swinish, slavish, foolish, Romish, Turkish, Welsh, French*. Comp. Germ. *-sch*. Added to adjectives it naturally gives a diminutive force, as *blackish, dullish.*

-less (A.S. *leas* = *loose, free from, without*). *Heedless, senseless, lawless.*

-ly (a corruption of *like*), added (of course) to nouns. *Godly, heavenly, ghastly* (from *ghost*), *manly.*

-some, added to verbs and adjectives to denote the presence of the quality that they indicate. *Winsome, buxom* (from *bugan* = *to yield*), *tiresome, quarrelsome, wholesome, blithesome, fulsome.*

-th or **d** (originally a superlative suffix), in numerals. *Third, fourth,* &c.

-y = A.S. **-ig**, added usualiy to nouns to indicate the presence of that for which the noun stands. *Greedy, bloody, needy, thirsty, moody, sorry* (*sore*), *dirty*, &c. Added to verbs, in *sticky, sundry* (*sunder*), *weary.*

-ward, denoting 'becoming' or 'inclining to' from A.S. *weorðan*. *Northward, froward* (*from*), *toward* (*to*).

319. For **Derived Pronouns**, see §§ 154—175.

DERIVED VERBS.

Verb-Prefixes (Teutonic).

320. **a**, meaning formerly *out, away, off*, now merely an *intensive* particle, prefixed to verbs:—*arise, abide, awake.*

be (= **by**) denotes the application of an action, or of an attributive idea, to an object, and so (*a*) makes intransitive verbs transitive, as *bemoan, bespeak, bestride, befall*, or (*b*) forms transitive verbs out of adjectives or nouns, as *bedim, begrime* (*grim*), *benumb, becloud, befriend, bedew*, or (*c*) strengthens the meaning of transitive verbs as *betake, bestow, bedazzle.*

for (= German *ver*) gives the idea of 'doing out and out,' 'overdoing, 'doing in a bad or contrary sense.' *Forswear* = 'swear through thick and thin,' 'swear falsely'; *forgive* = 'make a present of with out exacting a return or penalty' (Lat. *condonare*); *forbid; forget.*

mis, denoting *error* or *defect*, as in *misspell, misbelieve, misgive* Before Romance words, *misadvise, misdirect.*

un (Gothic *and* = *against, back*, German *ent*), implies the reversal of the action indicated by the simple verb:—*unbind, undo, untie.*

Answer (A.S. *andswarian*) has the same prefix; *Unbosom*, *unkennel*, *unsex*, &c., are formed directly from nouns.

gain (root of *against*, German *gegen*); *gainsay*, *gainstrive*.

with (see § 284 'with'); *withdraw*, *withstand*, *withhold*.

to (= Germ. *zer*; not the preposition *to*); *to brake* ('broke to pieces' is still found in *Judges* ix. 53).

Verb-Suffixes (Teutonic).

321. **-el** or **-le**, added to the roots of verbs and nouns gives a combined frequentative and diminutive force: *dazzle* (*daze*), *straddle* (*stride*), *shovel* (*shove*), *swaddle* (*swathe*), *dribble* (*drop*), *gamble* (*game*), *waddle* (*wade*), *snivel* (*sniff*), *grapple* (*grab*), from nouns—*kneel* (*knee*), *nestle* (*nest*), *sparkle* (*spark*), *throttle* (*throat*), *nibble* (*nib* or *neb*), *curdle*, *scribble* (*scribe*).

-er (giving much the same force as the last), *glimmer* (*gleam*), *wander* (*wend*), *fritter* (*fret*). *flitter* and *flutter* (*flit*).

-k (frequentative); *hark* (*hear*), *talk* (*tell*).

-en forming causative or factitive verbs from nouns and adjectives; as *strengthen*, *lengthen*, *frighten*, *fatten*, *sweeten*, *slacken*.

-se, forming verbs from adjectives; *cleanse*, *rinse* (comp. Germ. *rein*).

Derivatives formed by Modifications of Sound.

322. Verbs are often formed from nouns by a modification or weakening of the vowel sound, or of the final consonant, or of both. Thus *bind* (from *bond*), *sing* (from *song*), *breed* (*brood*), *feed* (*food*), *knit* (*knot*), *drip* (*drop*), *heal* (*whole*), *calve* (*calf*), *halve* (*half*), *breathe* (*breath*), *bathe* (*bath*), *shelve* (*shelf*), *graze* (*grass*), *glaze* (*glass*), *hitch* (*hook*). The same process is seen in Romance words, as *prize* from *price*, *advise* (*advice*), &c. The weakening was occasioned by verbal suffixes, which have since disappeared.

323. Transitive (causative) verbs are often formed by a slight **modification or weakening of the root** vowel from intransitive verbs denoting the act or state which the former produce. Thus *fell* (from *fall*), *set* (from *sit*), *raise* (from *rise*), *lay* (*lie*), *drench* (*drink*), *wend* (*wind*), *quell* (*quail*, A.S. *cwelan* 'to die').

324. A **k** or g sound at the end of words in old English tends to become **softened** in modern English. Compare *dike* and *ditch*, *stink* and *stench*, *wring* and *wrench*, *mark* and *march* (= *boundary*), *lurk* and *lurch*, *bank* and *bench*, *stark* and *starch*, *seek* and *beseech*, *bark* and *barge*, *bake* and *batch*, *stick* and *stitch*, *wake* and *watch*, *tweak* and *twitch*. Also *sc* tends to become *sh*, as A.S. *scacan* = *shake*, A.S. *scādu* = *shadow*, A.S. *sceal* = *shall*, A.S. *sceāp* = *sheep*, A.S. *scapan* = *shape*, A.S. *scip* = *ship*, &c., *scuffle* = *shuffle*, *screech* = *shriek*, *scabby* = *shabby*, *skirt* = *shirt*, &c.

325. Other collateral forms involve the **retention or omission of an initial s.** Compare *smash mash*, *splash plash*, *smelt melt*, *squash quash*, *squench quench*, *swag wag*.

326. For **Derived Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions** see §§ 267—291.

DERIVED WORDS CONTAINING PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

327. Prefixes of Latin Origin.

a, ab, abs (from *or* away). *Avert, abduction, abstract.* The *d* in *advance* is an error ; Fr. *avancer* from *ab* and *ante*.

ad (to) found also in the forms *ac, al, an, ap, as, at, a,* according to the consonant that follows it. *Adore, accede, allude, announce, appear, assent, attend, aspire.*

amb- or **am-** (round). *Amputate, ambiguous.*

ante or **anti** (before). *Antediluvian, antecessor* (or *ancestor*), *anticipate.*

circum or **circu** (round). *Circumlocution, circuit.*

con (with), also **com-, col-, cor-, co-,** according to the following consonant. *Conduct, compact, collision, correct, coheir.*

contra, contro (against), often Anglicized into *counter. Contravene, controvert, counteract, country-dance* = *contre-danse.*

de (down, from). *Denote, describe, descend.*

dis (in two, apart), also **dif-, di-, de-**. *Dissent, differ, dilute, deluge* (= *diluvium*), *depart, demi-*=*dimidium.* Naturalized and used as a negative before Teutonic words ; *disband, disbelieve, distrust.*

ex (out of), **ec-, ef-, e-**. *Extrude, efface, educe.* Disguised in *astonish* (*étonner* = *extonare*), *afraid* (*effrayer*), *scourge* (*ex-corrigere*), &c.

extra (*beyond*). *Extravagant, extraneous, stranger.*

in (in, into), modified to **il-, im-, ir-, en-, em-**. *Induce, illusion, impel, irruption, endure, embrace.* Naturalized and used before Teutonic words, *embody, embolden, endear.* Disguised in *anoint* (*in-unctus*).

in (negative). *Insecure, improper, illegitimate, irrational.*

inter, intro (among, within). *Interdict, introduce.*

mis- (Old Fr. *mes* = Lat. **minus**) ; *mischance* (comp. Fr. *méchant*), *mischief.*

ob, obs (against), **oc-, of-, op-**. *Oblige, occur, offend, oppose.*

per (through), **pel-**. *Permit, pellucid.* Disguised in *pardon* (*perdonare*), *pilgrim* (Ital. *pellegrino* = *peregrinus*).

post (after). *Postpone.*

prae or **pre** (before). *Praelection, preface.* Disguised in *provost* (= *prae-positus*).

praeter, preter (past). *Preterite, preternatural.*

pro (forth, before), **pol, por-, pur-**. *Promote, pollute, portray, purchase* (*pro-captiare*), *purpose, purveyor.*

re or **red** (back, again). *Redaction, redound, reduce.* Used before Teutonic words in *reset, reopen,* &c.

retro (backwards). Retrograde. *Rear* in *rearward.*

se or **sed** (apart). *Seduce, sed-ition.*

sub or **subs** (under), **suc-. suf-, sur-, sus-**. *Subdue, succeed, suffuse, surrogate, suspend.* Disguised in *sojourn* (*sub diurno*). Prefixed to Teutonic words in *sublet,* &c.

subter (beneath). *Subterfuge.*

super (above), **sur**. *Superscribe, surface* (= *superficies*), *surfeit, surcharge.*

trans or **tra** (beyond). *Translate, tradition.*

ultra (beyond). *Ultramontane.*

Suffixes of Latin Origin.*

328. Suffixes Denoting Persons.

(Doers of actions, persons charged with certain functions, or having to do with that for which the primary word stands.)

-tor, -sor, -or, -our, -er (= Latin **ator**);—*doctor, successor, emperor, Saviour, founder, enchanter.*

-ant, -ent (participles);—*attendant, tenant, agent.*

-er, -eer, -ier, -or, -ary (Lat. **-arius**);—*usher* (*ostiarius*), *archer,* (*arcuarius*), *farrier* (*ferrarius*), *brigadier, engineer, chancellor, lapidary.*

-ate (Latin **-atus**);—*legate, advocate.* Weakened to **-ee, -ey** or **y** in *nominee, committee, attorney, jury* (*juratus*), *deputy* (*deputatus*)

-ess (Lat. **-ensis**);—*burgess, Chinese.*

-ess (**-issa**, fem. suffix);—*countess, traitress.*

329. Suffixes forming Abstract Nouns.

-ion, -tion, -sion, -son, -som;—*opinion, action, tension, poison* (*potion-*), *ransom* (*redemption-*), *reason, season,* (*sation-*, 'sowing time').

-ance, -ancy, -ence, ency (Lat. **-antia, -entia**);—*distance, infancy, continence, decency.*

-age (**-agium** = **-aticum**);—*age, voyage* (*viaticum*), *homage, marriage, tillage, bondage, breakage,* &c.

* It is difficult to classify these suffixes with any approach to precision, as some have got very much confused, and adjectives and participles often make their appearance as nouns and verbs.

-ty, -ity (Lat. -tat, -itat-) ;—*vanity, cruelty, city* (*civitat-*).

-tude ;—*fortitude, magnitude.*

-our (Lat. **-or**) ;—*labour, ardour, honour.*

-y (Lat. **-ia**) ;—*misery, memory.* Preceded by *t* or *s*, **-tia** or **-sia** = **-cy** or **-ce**, *aristocracy, fancy, grace.*

-ice, -ess (Lat. **-itia** or **-itium**) ; *avarice, justice, duress* (*duritia*), *service, exercise.*

-ure;—*verdure, culture, picture, censure.*

-e (Lat. **-ium**) ;—*exile, homicide.*

-se, -ce, -s (Lat. **-sus**) ;—*case, advice, process.*

330. Suffixes denoting the Means or Instrument.

-ble, -bule ;—*stable, vestibule.*

-cle, -cre ;—*obstacle, vehicle, tabernacle, lucre, sepulchre.*

-ter, -tre ;—*cloister, theatre.*

-me, -m, -n (Lat. **-men**) ;—*volume, charm, leaven, noun.*

-ment ;—*ornament, pigment.* Also forming abstract nouns, as *movement, payment.*

331. Suffixes forming Diminutives.

-ule ;—*globule, pillule.*

-el, -le, -l (Lat. **-ulus, -a, -um** ; **allus, -ellus, -illus**) ; *chapel, libel, table, circle, castle, chancel, sam(p)le* (*exemplum*).

-cle, -cel, -sel (Lat. **culus**, &c., **cellus**, &c.) ;—*carbuncle, article, parcel, damsel.*

-et, -let (Romance, but of obscure origin) ;—*owlet, ballet, pocket, armlet, cutlet, streamlet.*

332. Suffixes forming Augmentatives.

-oon, -one, -on ;—*balloon, trombone, million, flagon.*

333. Suffixes having a Collective or Generic Sense.

-ery, -ry, -er (Lat. **-aria** *or* **-eria**) ; *nunnery, carpentry, chivalry, cavalry, river* (*riparia*), *gutter* (channel for *guttae*, 'drops').

334. Suffixes forming Adjectives.

(Many of these adjectives have become substantives in English.)

al ;—*legal, regal, general, comical* (passing into **-el** in *channel—canal*), *hotel, jewel*, or **-le** in *cattle* (*capitalia*).

-an, -ane, -ain, -en, -on (Lat. **anus**) ;—*pagan, mundane, certain, mizzen* (*medianus*), *surgeon, sexton.*

-ain, -aign, -eign, -ange (Lat. **-aneus**);—*mountain, champaign, foreign* (*foraneus*), *strange* (*extraneus*).

-ar;—*regular, singular.*

-ary, -arious (Lat. **-arius**);—*necessary, gregarious.* Nouns—*salary, granary*, &c.

-ian;—*Christian.*

-ine, -im;—*feminine, feline, divine, pilgrim* (Ital. *pellegrino*, from *peregrinus*).

-ant, -ent (participles);—*volant, fluent, patent.*

-ate, -ete, -eet, -ite, -ute, -te, -t (from Latin participles and adjectives);—*innate, concrete, discreet, erudite, hirsute, statute, polite, chaste, honest.* These adjective formations often become nouns, as *mandate, minute, fact, effect*, &c.

-ile, -il, -eel, -le, -el (Lat. **-ilis** and **-ĭlis**);—*fragile, senile, civil, frail, genteel, gentle, able, kennel* (*canile*).

-able, -ible, -ble;—*culpable, edible, feeble* (*flebilis*), old French *floible* (compare German *wenig* from *weinen*), *teachable.*

-ic, -ique;—*civic, public, unique.*

-ous, -ose (full of, abounding in);—*copious, verbose, grandiose, jocose, famous.*

-ous (Lat. **-us**);—*anxious, ŏmnivorous, murderous.*

-acious;—*mendacious, loquacious, vivacious.*

-ious or **-y** (Lat. **-ius**, after *tor* and *sor*);—*censorious, amatory, illusory.*

-id;—*fervid, timid, hurried.*

-ive, -iff (commonly after t and s of the perfect participle);—*captive, caitiff, plaintive, plaintiff, indicative, adoptive, restive.*

-estrial, -estrian (Lat **-estris**);—*terrestrial, equestrian.*

335. Verb Suffixes.

-fy (**-ficare**, forming compounds rather than derivatives);—*terrify.*

-ish (**-esco**, through the French inchoative conjugation in *-ir*, *-issant*);—*banish, punish*, &c.

336. There are two principal modes in which verbs are formed in English from Latin verbs. One mode is to take simply the crude form of the infinitive mood or present tense, without any suffix; as *intend, defend, manumit, incline, opine.* The second mode is to turn the perfect participle passive (slightly modified) into a verb, as *create* (from *creatus*), *conduct* (from *conductus*), *credit* (from *creditus*), *expedite* (*expeditus*), *incense* (from *incensus*). When derivatives are formed by both methods, one generally retains one of the meanings of the original verb, the other another. Compare *deduce* and *deduct; conduce* and *conduct; construe* and *construct; revert* and *reverse.*

337. Nouns (or adjectives) and verbs of Latin origin are often the same in form, but are distinguished by the accent, the noun or adjective having the accent on the first syllable, the verb on the second.

Noun.	*Verb.*	*Noun or Adjective.*	*Verb.*
áccent	accént	óbject	objéct
áffix	affíx	próduce	produce
cóllect	colléct	fréquent	frequént
cóncert	concért	ábsent	absént

GREEK PREFIXES.

338. The following prefixes are found in words of Greek origin :—

a or **an** (not). *Anarchy.*
amphi (on both sides, *or* round). *Amphibious, amphitheatre.*
ana (up). *Anabasis, anatomy, analogy.*
anti (against). *Antithesis, antipathy.*
apo (from). *Apogee, apology.*
cata (down). *Catalepsy, catastrophe.*
di (two, or in two). *Disyllable, diphthong.*
dia (through, among). *Diameter, diaphanous.*
en or **em** (in *or* on). *Emphasis, enema.*
endo (within). *Endosmose.*
epi (upon). *Epilogue, epitaph.*
ec or **ex** (out of). *Exodus, ecstatic.*
exo (outside). *Exosmose.*
hyper (over). *Hyperbolical.*
hypo (under). *Hypotenuse, hypothesis.*
meta (implying change). *Metamorphosis.*
para (beside). *Parabola, paraphrase.*
peri (round). *Peristyle, perimeter.*
pro (before). *Program.*
pros (to). *Prosody.*
syn (with, together), modified into *sym* or *syl*. *Syndic, syntax, symbol, syllogism, syllable.*
eu (well). *Euphony, eulogy.*

GREEK SUFFIXES.

339. The following suffixes mark words of Greek origin :—

-e : *catastrophe.*
-y (= ια) : *anatomy, monarchy,*
-ad or **-id**. *Iliad, Æneid, Troad.*
-ic, -tic. *Logic, cynic, ethics, arithmetic.*
-ac, *maniac, Syriac.*
-sis, -sy, -se (= -σις): *crisis, emphasis, palsy* (*paralysis*), *hypocrisy phrensy, eclipse.*

-ma : *diorama, enema.*
-tre, -ter (*-τρον*) : *centre, meter.*
-st, *iconoclast, sophist, baptist.*
-te, -t (= *τηs*) : *apostate, comet, patriot.*
-sm : *sophism, spasm, aneurism.*
-isk : *asterisk, obelisk.*
-ize (in verbs) : *baptize, criticize.* This termination and its derivatives have been imitated in modern formations, as *minimize, theorize, deism, egotism, egotist, annalist, papist.*

CHANGES IN LATIN WORDS PASSING THROUGH FRENCH.

340. An attentive examination of § 328, &c., will show the usual changes that are to be looked for when a Latin word has passed through French into English. The following (amongst others of less difficulty) should be borne in mind :—

1. *b* often vanishes from between vowels. Compare *sudden* and *subitaneus.*

2. *c* or *g* often vanishes when it occurs before a dental or between vowels. Compare *feat* and *factum*, *sure* and *securus*, *pay* and *pacare*, *deny* and *denegare*, *display* and *displicare*, *rule* and *regula*, *seal* and *sigillum*, *allow* and *allocare.*

3. *d* or *t* vanishes. Compare *prey* and *praeda*, *ray* and *radius*, *chair* and *cathedra*, *cue* and *cauda*, *roll* and *rotulus*, *round* and *rotundus*, *treason* and *tradition*, and look at *chance*, *obey*, *recreant*, *defy*, *jay*, &c.

4 Initial *c* becomes *ch*, as in *chief*, *chance*, *chandler*, *chant*, *change.*

5. The consonantal force of *ll* disappears ; as in *couch* from *collocare*, *beauty* from *bellitas*, &c.

6. *b* or *p* becomes *v* or *f*, as in *chief* (*caput*), *ravin* (*rapio*), *river* (*riparius*), *cover* (*co-operire*), *van* (*ab-ante*).

7. *di* before a vowel becomes soft *g* or *ch* or *j*, as in *siege* (*assedium*), *journey* (*diurnata*), *preach* (*praedicare*), *Jane* (*Diana*).

8. *ti* undergoes a similar change, as in *voyage* (*viaticum*), *age* (*aetaticum*).

9. *bi*, *pi*, *vi*, before a vowel becomes *ge* or *dge*, as in *abridge* (*abbreviare*), *change* (*cambiare*), *plunge* (*plumbicare*), *rage* (*rabies*), *deluge* (*diluvium*), *assuage* (*ad-suavis*), *sage* (*sapio*).

341. A Latin word adopted in old English or brought in through French has sometimes been re-introduced at a later period directly from the Latin. In that case the older word shows a more mutilated form than the later. Compare *bishop* and *episcopal ;*

minster and *monastery; priest* and *presbyter; pistol* and *epistle; balm* and *balsam; sure* and *secure.*

Sometimes the older form has kept its ground with a different shade of meaning. Compare *penance* and *penitence; blame* and *blasphemy; chalice* and *calix; forge* and *fabric; countenance* and *continence; feat* and *fact; defeat* and *defect; poor* and *pauper; ray* and *radius; treason* and *tradition; frail* and *fragile; loyal* and *legal; couch* and *collocate.*

SYNTAX.

342. The word **syntax** means **arrangement** (Greek *syn*, together, *taxis*, arrangement). The rules of syntax are statements of the ways in which the words of a sentence are related to each other.

343. A **sentence** is a collection of words of such kinds, and arranged in such a manner, as to make some complete sense.

By "making some complete sense" is meant, that *something is said about something.*

344. It is plain, therefore, that every ordinary sentence must consist of two essential parts :—

1. **That which denotes what we speak about.** This is called the **Subject.***
2. **That which is said about that of which we speak.** This is called the **Predicate.**

345. In Logic, the *subject* of a proposition is *the entire description* of that which is spoken of : the *predicate* is *all that is employed* to represent

* The grammatical subject of a sentence (which is a *word*) must not be confounded with the *thing* that is spoken about. In 'birds fly,' the predicate 'fly' is *attached* to the (grammatical) subject 'birds', but *flying* is *predicated* of the *creatures* named by the noun.

the idea which is connected with the subject. Thus, in "This boy's father gave him a book," the subject is "this boy's father;" the predicate is "gave him a book." But in grammar, the single noun *father* is called the subject, and *gave* the predicate, the words connected with *father* and *gave* being treated as enlargements or adjuncts of the subject and predicate.

346. In Logic propositions are always reduced to the form of which "Gold is yellow" may be taken as a type; that is, two *terms* (as they are called) are united by the verb *is*, *are*, &c. Of these *terms* the first is called the subject, the second the predicate, and the intervening verb, *is*, *are*, &c., is called the *copula* or *link*. In grammar the *copula* consists simply of the *personal inflexions* of the verb, and is therefore regarded as a part of the predicate. Thus in the sentence "Time flies," *time* is called the subject, and *flies* the predicate.

347. Whenever we speak of anything, we make it a separate object of thought. A word, or combination of words, that can stand for anything which we make a separate object of thought is called a **substantive**.

348. It follows that the **subject** of a sentence must be a **substantive**.

349. The **subject** of a sentence therefore may be:—

1. **A Noun.**
2. **A Substantive Pronoun** (see § 130).
3. **An Infinitive Mood** (see § 194).
4. **A Gerund**, or **Verbal Noun** (see § 197).
5. **Any word which is itself made the subject of discourse**, every word being *a name for itself*.
6. **A phrase or quotation**; a phrase being, to all intents and purposes, *a name for itself*.
7. **A Substantive Clause**, that is, a clause which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, has the force of a single substantive (§ 403).

350. The essential part of every affirmation is a finite verb (*i.e.*, a verb in some one of its *personal* forms).

351. The **subject** and the **verb** are the **cardinal points** of every sentence. All other words in a sentence are attached directly or indirectly to one or other of these two.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

Sentences are of three kinds:—

A **Simple.** B. **Complex.** C. **Compound.**

352. When a sentence contains only one subject and one finite verb, it is said to be a **simple** sentence.

353. When a sentence contains not only a principal subject and its verb, but also other dependent or subordinate clauses which have subjects and verbs of their own, the sentence is said to be **complex.**

354. When a sentence consists of two or more principal and independent sentences connected by co-ordinative conjunctions, it is said to be **compound.**

355. Sentences may also be arranged as **Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative,** and **Conceptive Sentences.**

The subject of a sentence stands for something that we think of; the predicate denotes some fact or idea which may be connected with that thing. But this union may be viewed in more ways than one.

1. When it is our intention to declare that the connexion between what the subject stands for and what the predicate stands for, *does* exist, the sentence is **declarative**;* as, "Thomas left the room."

2. When it is our wish to know whether the connexion referred to subsists, the sentence is **interrogative**; as, "Did Thomas leave the room?"

3. When we express our *will* or *wish* that the connexion between what the subject stands for and what the predicate denotes, should subsist, the sentence that results is called an **imperative** or **optative** sentence; as, "Thomas, leave [thou] the room," "May you speedily recover."

4. When we merely *think* of the connexion as subsisting without declaring or willing it, we get a **conceptive** sentence. Sentences of this kind can only be used in combination with others. (See § 192.)

356. In all the above-named kinds of sentences, the *grammatical* connexion between the subject and the verb is the same. It is

* A *negative*, if there is one, is taken as part of the predicate.

sufficient, therefore, to take one as a type of all. The declarative sentence is the most convenient for this purpose.

RELATION OF WORDS TO ONE ANOTHER.

357. The modes in which the various words and groups of words in a sentence are related to each other may be classed as follows:—

1. **The Predicative Relation.**
2. **The Attributive Relation.**
3. **The Objective Relation.**
4. **The Adverbial Relation.**

THE PREDICATIVE RELATION.

358. The **Predicative Relation** is that in which the predicate of a sentence stands to its subject.*

359. The predicative relation to the subject may be sustained by a verb, or by a verb of incomplete predication and its complement (see §392). In the sentence, "The boy ran away," the verb *ran* is in the predicative relation to the subject *boy*. In the sentence, "The ball is round," not only the verb *is*, but the adjective *round*, which belongs to the predicate, is said to be in the predicative relation to the subject *ball*.

THE ATTRIBUTIVE RELATION.

360. When we attach to a noun or pronoun an adjective, or what is equivalent to an adjective, that is to say a phrase or clause by which we describe, measure, or indicate more precisely that for which the noun or pronoun stands, the adjective or its equivalent stands in the **Attributive Relation** to the noun or pronoun, and is said to be an **Attributive Adjunct** to it.

361. Thus in "Wise men sometimes act foolishly," *wise* is in the Attributive Relation to the noun *men*; it *describes* the men. If we say "The men were wise," then *were* and its complement *wise* are both in the Predicative Relation to men.

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* A relation of this sort is, of course, reciprocal. In the sentence, "The boy ran away," while *ran* is in the predicative relation to *boy*, *boy* is in its turn in the *subjective* relation to *ran*. But as these are only two different modes of viewing the *same* grammatical combination, a separate classification is unnecessary.

ATTRIBUTIVE ADJUNCTS.

362. Attributive adjuncts may be of the following kinds :—

1. **An adjective** or **participle**, either used simply, or accompanied by adjuncts of its own ; as, "*A large* apple, *many* men ; " " the soldier, *covered with wounds*, still fought."

2. **A noun in apposition** to the substantive; as, "John Smith, *the baker*, said so," or a substantive clause in apposition to some substantive, as, "The report *that he was killed* is untrue," where the clause *that he was killed* is in apposition to *report*.

We have some instances of apposition, such as 'A hundred sheep ;' 'A thousand men' ; in which originally the second noun was in the genitive case ('A hundred of sheep,' &c.). In other cases the preposition *of* has replaced apposition, as, 'What manner of man is this.' In Chaucer we should have, 'No maner wight,' 'A barrel ale.'

3. **A substantive in the possessive case** ; as, " My **father's** house " ; " **John's** book " ; " The man **whose** house was burnt down," or a substantive preceded by *of*, used as the equivalent of the genitive case in any of its meanings ; as, " One **of us** " ; " The leader **of the party** " ; " The love **of money.**"

Nouns or pronouns in the Possessive Case are so like adjectives that in the older stage of our language the possessive cases of the personal pronouns were declined as adjectives (just as *cujus* was in Latin). In modern German adjectives in *-sch* are often used in place of nouns in the genitive.

4. **A substantive preceded by a preposition**, as, " A horse *for riding* " ; " Water *to drink* " ; " The trees *in the garden* " ; " A time *to weep.*" A simple adverb may be used in a similar way, as, " The house *here* " ; " An *outside* passenger " ; " The *then* state of affairs." These may be called *quasi-attributive adjuncts* of the noun.

This construction had its origin in the use of a participle which was afterwards dropped, as in Greek *οἱ νῦν ἄνθρωποι* is *οἱ νῦν ὄντες ἄνθρωποι.* 'An outside passenger' is 'An outside riding passenger' ; 'The then state' is 'The then existing state,' &c.

Under this head we may class those instances in which an adverb or adverbial phrase is attached to a noun by virtue of the idea of *action* which the noun involves,* as, " Our return *home* " (compare 'We returned home'); " His journey *to Paris* " ('he journeyed to Paris'); " The revolt of the Netherlands *from Spain* " ('The Netherlands revolted from Spain'), &c.

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* It is the *notional signification* of a verb, not its predicative function, which is qualified by an adverb, or defined by an objective case. Hence participles and gerunds, which are not *predicative*, have objects and adverbs attached to them, and some nouns admit of at least an approach to the same construction.

5. **An Adjective Clause** (§ 408) as, "They *that will be rich* fall into temptation"; "I have found the piece *which I had lost*."

364. One attributive adjunct may often be replaced by another. Thus, for "The king's palace," we may say, 'The palace of the king,' or 'The palace which belongs to the king,' or 'The palace belonging to the king', &c.

THE OBJECTIVE RELATION.

365. When a verb, participle, or gerund in the Active Voice denotes an action which is directed towards some object, the word denoting that object stands in the **objective relation** to the verb, participle, or gerund. Thus, in "The dog bites the boy," *boy* is in the objective relation to *bites*. In, "Seeing the tumult, I went out," *tumult* is in the objective relation to *seeing*. In, "Hating one's neighbour is forbidden by the Gospel," *neighbour* is in the objective relation to the gerund *hating*. The **object of a verb** is the word, phrase, or clause which stands for the object of the action described by the verb when it is in the Active Voice.

366. Besides the **Direct Object**, which denotes the immediate *object* or *product* of an action, transitive verbs are often followed by an **Indirect Object**, which denotes that which is *indirectly affected* by the action spoken of by the verb, as "Give *him* the book." "The tailor made *the boy* a coat."

In Latin, German, or Old English the Direct Object is denoted by the Accusative Case, and the Indirect Object by the Dative Case.

Both the direct and indirect *object* of the *active* verb may become the *subject* of the *passive* verb. Thus "I told him the story" may give us either "He was told the story," or, "The story was told him." In this way one of the two objects of the active verb remains as an object of the passive verb.

367. The direct object of an action may be denoted by

1. **A noun**;—as "He struck the *table*."
2. **A Substantive Pronoun**;—as "We admire *him*."
3. **A Verb in the Infinitive Mood**;—as "I love *to hear* music;" "I durst not *come*."
4. **A Gerund** or **Verbal Noun**;—as "He hates *learning* lessons."

5. **Any word or phrase used as the name for itself**;—as "Parse *went* in the following sentence."

6. **A quotation**;—as "He said '*Show me that book.*'"

7. **A Substantive Clause**;—as "We heard *that he had arrived.*"

368. The objective relation is not indicated by prepositions.*

THE ADVERBIAL RELATION

369. Any word, phrase, or clause which modifies or limits a verb, adjective, or attributive phrase is in the Adverbial Relation to it (see § 259), or is an Adverbial Adjunct to it.

ADVERBIAL ADJUNCTS.

370. Adverbial Adjuncts may be of the following kinds :—

1. **An adverb** (see § 259) ; as, "He fought *bravely.*" "I set out *yesterday.*" "He is *very* industrious."

2. **A substantive preceded by a preposition** ; as, "He hopes *for success.*" "I heard *of his arrival.*" "He killed the bird *with a stone.*" "He is fond *of reading.*" "All *but* † *one* were present.

The gerundial infinitive (§ 196) often forms an adverbial adjunct of a verb or adjective ; *e.g.*, "He strives *to succeed.*" "This food is not fit *to eat.*" "This house is *to let* (= *for letting*)." *But*, followed by an infinitive mood or a clause, often forms an adverbial adjunct ; as, "I would buy it *but that I have no money*," where '*but that—money*' forms an adverbial adjunct to *would buy.*

3. **A noun qualified by some attributive adjunct,** and so forming a phrase denoting *time when*, or the *measure* of space or time, or marking some *attendant circumstance* of an action ; as, "He arrived *last night.*" "We stayed there *all the summer.*" "He lives *three miles* away." "Go *that way.*"

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* A substantive preceded by a preposition always constitutes either an attributive adjunct (§ 362, 4), or an adverbial adjunct (§ 370, 2). When the preposition is used to denote the relation of a thing to a thing (§ 277). we get an attributive adjunct ; when it denotes the relation of an attribute or action of a thing to some other thing, we get an adverbial adjunct. This statement is not invalidated by the remarkable freedom of English in the use of the Passive Voice. "I am speaking of you" is precisely analogous to the French, "Je parle de vous," the German "Ich spreche von dir," and the Latin "Loquor de te." Nobody would for a moment admit that *loquor de* makes a *compound transitive verb*, and that *de* has ceased to be a preposition and become an adverb united to the verb. Yet we can say in English, "This was spoken of :" but so can we also say, "He was taken care of," "He was promised a new coat." (See § 186.)

† Pay special attention to this preposition 'but' (see § 281, 2, *b*)..

"They advanced *sword in hand*." "They went over *dry foot*." In all such expressions the noun is in the objective case.

4. **A substantive in the objective case,** before which some such preposition as *to* or *for* might have been put, and which in old English would have been in the dative case; as, "Give *me* (*i.e.*, *to me*) the book." "I will sing *you* (*i.e.*, *for you*) a song." "You are like him (*i.e.*, like *to him*)." A noun thus used with a verb is often called the *indirect object* of the verb.

5. **A substantive (accompanied by some attributive adjunct) in the nominative or objective* absolute;** as, "*The sun having risen*, we commenced our journey." "*He being absent*, nothing could be done." A substantive clause may be used absolutely, like a simple substantive, as, "*Granted this is true*, you are still in the wrong."

Participles may be used absolutely in this manner without having any noun to be attached to (see § 282). In such a sentence as "Speaking generally, this is the case," the phrase 'speaking generally' is an adverbial adjunct of the predicate.

6. **An adverbial clause,** as, "I will come *when I am ready*;" "I would tell you *if I could*."

371. What is often termed the *cognate accusative* (or objective) (as in 'to run *a race*,' 'to die *a happy death*') should more properly be classed among the adverbial adjuncts. In Anglo-Saxon the dative was used.

372. It is perhaps under the head of the *adverbial relation* that we should class such anomalous passive constructions as, "He was taught *his lesson*." "He was paid *his bill*."

373. One kind of Adverbial Adjuncts may often be replaced by another.

Thus for "He suffered *patiently*," we may say "He suffered *with patience*," and *vice versâ*; for "He failed *through carelessness*" we may say "He failed *because he was careless*;" for "*This being granted*, the proof is easy," we may say "*If this be granted*, the proof is easy.

Subject and Predicate.

374. As both the subject and the verb of a sentence are spoken of the same thing, they must agree with each other in those points which they have in common, that is, in *number* and *person*.

375. The **subject** of a finite verb is put in the **nominative case.**

* The Objective Case (representing the Anglo-Saxon dative) is the proper construction, but now-a-days the nominative is usual. Milton uses both constructions.

376. A noun in the singular number which denotes a *multitude* (as *crowd*, *senate*, *army*, *flock*) may have its verb in the plural number, when the idea to be kept in view is not the *multitude viewed as one whole*, but the *individuals* of which the multitude is composed. As, "The multitude were of one mind." But we should say, "The army *was led* into the defile," because we then speak of the army *as a whole*.

377. The verb is put in the plural number when it has for its subject two or more nouns in the singular coupled by the conjunction *and*;* as, "John and Thomas were walking together." But when the compound subject is considered as forming one whole, the verb is kept in the singular; as, "The mind and spirit remains invincible;" "Hill and valley rings" (*Par. L.* ii. 495); "Wherein doth sit *the dread and fear* of kings" (*Shakspere, M. of V.*).

378. Every finite verb must have a subject in the nominative case expressed or understood.

379. Such a sentence as, "That is the man whom I heard was ill," is faulty, because the verb *was* is left without a subject; the relative pronoun, which ought to be the subject, being wrongly put in the objective case. It should be, "That is the man who, I heard, was ill." "I will give this to whomsoever wants it" is faulty in a similar way. *Wants* must have *whosoever* for its subject.

380. Every noun, pronoun, or substantive phrase used as a subject ought to have a verb attached to it as predicate.

381. But for the sake of giving greater prominence to the subject, it is sometimes mentioned first, and then repeated by means of a demonstrative pronoun, as "The Lord, He is the God."

382. Also in subordinate clauses with *if* and *when*, where a relative pronoun is the subject, there is the difficulty that the relative must come first, and yet the subject must not be separated from the verb by *if* or *when*. The older writers in such cases repeated the subject relative in the form of a demonstrative, as "A right noble lord, *who* had *he* not sacrificed his life, &c." (*Milton*); "Lend it rather to thine enemy, *who* if *he* break, thou mayst with better face exact the penalty" (*Merch. Ven.*).

383. The subject of a verb is sometimes understood as, "I have a mind presages me such thrift," for '*which* presages,' &c.; "So far as [it] in him lies"; "*Do* [he] what he will, he cannot make matters worse." The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is usually omitted.

* The preposition *with* sometimes answers the same purpose, as "Gedaliah, *who* with his brethren and son *were* twelve" (1 *Chron.* xxv. 9).

SUBJECT.

384. The subject of a sentence may be—

1. Simple. 2. Compound. 3. Complex.

385. The subject of a sentence is simple when it consists of a single substantive, or a simple infinitive mood; as, "*I* love truth"; "*Men* are mortal"; "*To err* is human" (See § 349).

386. The subject of a sentence is compound when it consists of two or more substantives coupled together by the conjunction *and;* as, "Cæsar and Pompey were rivals." "You and I will travel together."*

The conjunctions *either—or, neither—nor,* do not couple substantives together so as to form a compound subject. They imply that *one* of two alternatives is to be taken. Hence if each subject is singular the verb must be singular. Thus, "Either he or his brother was in fault;" "Neither John nor Thomas has arrived."

387. The subject of a sentence is complex when it consists of **an infinitive or gerundive phrase, of a substantive clause,** or of a **quotation**; as, "How to do it is the question"; "That he said so is certain"; "'England expects every man to do his duty,' was Nelson's watchword."

A complex subject is very often anticipated by the pleonastic use of the neuter pronoun **it,** which serves as **a temporary substitute for the real subject,** the grammatical relation of which to the verb it indicates more concisely. Thus:—"*It* is wicked *to tell lies;*" "*It* is certain *that he said so.*"†

Enlarged or Expanded Subject.

388. The subject of a sentence may have attached to it any attributive adjunct or any combination of attributive adjuncts (see § 362), as,

"*The* man told a lie" (*Demonst. Adj.*).

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* Many grammarians insist that in cases of this kind we are to regard the sentence as a contraction of two co-ordinate sentences joined by *and.* This explanation might do very well for such a sentence as, "John and William are eleven years old"; that is, "John is eleven years old, and William is eleven years old"; but it is simply absurd when applied to such sentences, as "Two and three make five," "He and I are of the same age"; "Blue and yellow make green."

† In such sentences, as "There was a man of the Pharisees, &c.," there is not the least necessity for regarding *there* as a temporary substitute for the subject. It is a mere adverb, having its proper (though very weakened) force. It answers to the French *y* in 'il y a' where the *subject* is *il.*

"*Good* men love virtue" (*Adj. of Quality*).

"Edward *the Black Prince* did not succeed his father" (*Noun in Apposition*).

"*John's new* coat, *which he was wearing for the first time*, was torn" (1. *Noun in Poss. Case*, 2. *Adj. of Quality*, 3. *Adjective Clause*).

If the subject is a verb in the infinitive mood, or a gerund, it may be accompanied by objective or adverbial adjuncts, as,

"*To rise early* is healthful."

"*To love one's enemies* is a Christian duty."

"*Playing with fire* is dangerous."

PREDICATE.

389. The Predicate of a sentence may be

1. Simple. **2. Complex.**

SIMPLE PREDICATE.

390. The **predicate** of a sentence is **simple** when the notion to be conveyed is expressed by a single finite verb; as, "Virtue *flourishes*." "Time *flies*." "I *love*."

COMPLEX PREDICATE.

391. Many verbs do not make complete sense by themselves, but require some other word to be used with them to make the sense complete. Of this kind are the intransitive verbs *be*, *become*, *grow*, *seem*, *can*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, &c., and such transitive verbs, as *make*, *call*.

To say, "The horse is," "The light becomes," "I can," or "I made the man," makes no sense. It is requisite to use some other word or phrase (a substantive, an adjective, or a verb in the infinitive) with the verb; as, "The horse *is black*." "The light *becomes dim*," "I *can write*." "It *made* the man *mad*." "He *was made king*." Verbs of this kind are called **Verbs of incomplete Predication**, and the words used with them to make the predication complete may be called **the complement of the predicate.**

Verbs which are capable of forming simple predicates are often followed by complements, being verbs of incomplete predication *so far as the matter in hand is concerned*. Thus *live* is not always and necessarily a verb of incomplete predication, but in the sentence, "He lived happy ever afterwards," the predicate is *lived happy*, and *happy* forms a (subjective) complement to *lived*, which, therefore, is, *so far*, a verb of incomplete predication. So in "They went along singing," *singing* is the comple-

ment of *went*. In "He made a mistake," *made* is a verb of complete predication; in "He made his father angry," *made* is a verb of incomplete predication, and requires the (objective) complement *angry* to make the sense complete.

392. The **predicate** of a sentence is **complex** when it consists **of a verb of incomplete predication accompanied by its complement.**

1. Subjective Complement.

393. When a verb of incomplete predication is intransitive or passive, the complement of the predicate stands in the predicative relation to the subject; as, "He is prudent." "He became rich." "He is called John." "The wine tastes sour." "He feels sick." This kind of complement may be termed the *Subjective Complement.*

394. A verb is an *attributive* word, and an infinitive mood or infinitive phrase is often used instead of an adjective as a subjective complement, as, "He seems to have forgotten me." The infinitive thus used may itself be followed by a complement. Thus, in "He appears to be honest," *to be* is the complement of *appears*, and *honest* the complement of *to be.*

The complement of the predicate in these cases is spoken of the subject, and must therefore agree with the subject in all that they can have in common. Hence the rule that the verbs *be, become, feel, be called*, &c., take the same case after them as before them. The objective complement with an active verb becomes the subjective complement of the passive, as, "He cut the matter short," "The matter was cut short."

2. Objective Complement.

395. When the verb is transitive, and in the active voice, the **complement** of the predicate stands in the **attributive relation** to the **object** of the verb; as, "He dyed the cloth red." "She called the man a liar." This kind of complement may be termed the **Objective Complement.***

3. Infinitive Complement.

396. The third kind of complement is that which follows such verbs as *can*, *will*, *must*, &c., as "I can *write*," "He must *go*." This may be termed the **infinitive complement**, or **complementary infinitive.** The *object* of the sentence is often attached to the dependent infinitive.

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* In such a sentence as "He found the man dead," *dead* is not the complement of the verb *found*, because the dead state of the man has nothing to do with the *finding*. But in "He dyed the cloth red," *red* is the complement of *dyed*, because the redness is *the result* of the dyeing.

OBJECT.

397. The Object of a verb may be

1. Simple. 2. Compound. 3. Complex.

These distinctions are the same as in the case of the Subject (§ 385, &c.).

There is also a peculiar kind of Complex Object, consisting of a **Substantive** accompanied by an **Infinitive Mood** or **Participle** which forms an **Indirect Predicate** to it, as "I saw *him fall*"; "He made *the bear dance*"; "Let there *be light*"; "Let *us pray*"; "He ordered *the prisoners to be released*"; "He knew *the story to be false*"; "We saw *the man hanged*"; "They found *the child dying*"; "He made *his power felt*." The Accusative and Infinitive in Latin is an analogous construction.

398. The neuter *it* often serves as a temporary representative of a complex object, showing its grammatical relation to the sentence, as "I think *it* foolish *to act so*." See § 387.

399. The object of a verb may have any combination of attributive adjuncts attached to it. It is then said to be **enlarged or expanded.**

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

400. A Complex Sentence is one which, besides a principal subject and predicate, contains one or more subordinate clauses, which have subjects and predicates of their own.

401. Subordinate Clauses are of three kinds:—

1. Substantive Clauses.

2. Adjective Clauses.

3. Adverbial Clauses.

A Substantive Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to a substantive.

An Adjective Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an adjective.

An Adverbial Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an adverb.

402. A complex sentence is produced whenever the place of a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb is supplied by **a substantive clause, an adjective clause,** or **an adverbial clause.**

If we say, "He announced the arrival of Cæsar," we get a simple sentence. If we say, "He announced that Cæsar had arrived," we get a complex sentence, the substantive clause *that Cæsar had arrived* being substituted for *the arrival of Cæsar*.

If we say, "He has lost the book given to him by me," we have a simple sentence. If we say, "He has lost the book which I had given to him," we get a complex sentence, the adjective clause *which I had given to him* being substituted for *given to him by me*.

If we say, "The boy went out to play on the completion of his task," we get a simple sentence. If we say, "The boy went out to play when he had completed his task," we get a complex sentence, the adverbial clause *when he had completed his task*, being substituted for *on the completion of his task*.

It must never be forgotten that a dependent or subordinate clause is *an integral part* of the principal sentence to which it belongs, just as though it were an ordinary substantive, adjective, or adverb.

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

403. A **Substantive Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to a substantive.** It may be either the subject or the object of the verb in the principal clause, or it may be in apposition to some other substantive, or be governed by a preposition.

Substantive clauses usually begin either with the conjunction *that*, or with an interrogative word. The conjunction *that*, however, is frequently understood ; as "I saw *he was tired*."

404. In the sentence "I know that he did this," the clause '*that he did this*' is the object of the verb '*know*.'

In "He asked me how old I was," the clause '*how old I was*' is the object of the verb '*asked*.' *

In "When I set out is uncertain" the clause '*when I set out*' is the subject of the verb '*is*.' *

In "We should have arrived sooner, but that we met with an accident," the clause '*that we met with an accident*' is governed by the preposition '*but*.'

405. When a substantive clause is the subject of a verb, it is usually represented temporarily by the pleonastic demonstrative '*it*,' as "*It* is not true *that he died yesterday*."

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* *How* and *when* are here interrogative words. In cases of this sort we get what is called a *dependent* (or *indirect*) *question*.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

406. An Adjective Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to an adjective.** It stands in the attributive relation to a substantive, and is attached to the word which it qualifies by means of a relative pronoun, or a relative adverb which is equivalent to a relative pronoun preceded by a preposition.

In the sentence "Look at the exercise which I have written," the clause '*which I have written*' qualifies the noun '*exercise*,' and is much the same in force as the participial phrase 'written by me.'

In "That is the house where I dwell," the clause '*where I dwell*' qualifies the noun '*house*.' *Where* is equivalent to *in which*.

407. The relative is sometimes omitted, as, "Where is the book *I gave you?*" for *which I gave you;* "I have a mind *presages me such thrift*," &c., for *which presages*, &c.

408. Sometimes adjective clauses are used substantively, *i.e.*, with no antecedent expressed, as "Who steals my purse, steals trash." This omission of the antecedent is usual when the relative *what* is used, as, "I heard what he said," "There is no truth in what he said."

409. Care must be used to distinguish those clauses in which an indirect question is involved in the use of *who, what, when, where*, &c., from clauses in which these words are mere *relatives*. In such sentences as, "Tell me what I ought to do," "I asked him who said so," "I know why he did it," "He asked me when I had arrived,' the dependent clauses are indirect questions, and are substantive clauses, having no antecedent expressed or understood to which they relate. In "That is what I said," "This is where I live," the dependent clauses are adjective clauses. The distinction is analogous to that between clauses beginning with *quis* or *quid* in Latin, and clauses beginning with *qui* or *quod*.

410. Adjective clauses are very often co-ordinate with the demonstrative adjectives *this, that*, &c. In such cases the demonstrative word is simply preparatory to the adjective clause by which its own import is more fully explained. Thus in the sentence, "I never received those books which you sent," the adjective '*those*' and the adjective clause '*which you sent*' are both in the attributive relation to '*books*.'

411. Clauses beginning with *as* must be regarded as adjective clauses, when they follow *such* and *same*. Thus, in "I do not admire such books as he writes," the clause *as he writes* is an adjective clause qualifying *books*, and co-ordinate with *such*.

412. An adjective clause (like an ordinary adjective) has usually a definitive or restrictive force. But it often happens that clauses intro-

duced by relatives are, as regards their *force* and *meaning*, co-ordinate with the principal clause. Such a clause is *continuative* rather than *definitive*. Thus, in "I wrote to your brother, who replied that you had not arrived," the sense of the sentence would be the same if *and he* were substituted for *who*. So in "He heard that the bank had failed, which was a sad blow to him," *which* should be treated as equivalent to *and this*.

413. The anticipative or provisional subject *it* often has an adjective clause as an adjunct. Thus, "It was John who did that" = "It (the person) who did that was John." In such cases, when the relative is the subject of the following verb, that verb usually agrees in number and person with the predicative noun or pronoun instead of the subject *it*; as, "It is my parents who forbid that;" "It is I who say so."

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

414. An **Adverbial Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to an adverb.** It stands in the adverbial relation to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Thus, in the sentence, "He was writing a letter when I arrived," the clause "*when I arrived*," indicates the time at which the action expressed by the verb *was writing* took place. The clause "*when I arrived*" is therefore in the adverbial relation to the verb *was writing*.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

415. Adverbial Clauses may be arranged in the following classes :—

1.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Time.

416. Clauses of this kind begin either with the connective adverbs which denote time, or with the conjunctions *before*, *after*, *while*, *since*, *ere*, *until*, &c. As, "Every one listens *when he speaks*." "He punished the boy *whenever he did wrong*." "He never spoke *after he fell*."

2.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Place.

417. Clauses of this kind are introduced by the relative or connective adverbs *where*, *whither*, *whence*, &c. As, "He is still standing *where I left him*." "*Whither I go* ye cannot come."

3.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Manner.

418. Adverbial clauses relating to manner are commonly introduced by the relative or connective adverb *as*. *E.g.*, "He did *as he was told*." "It turned out *as I expected*." Clauses beginning with *as* are generally elliptical. At full length, "He did as he was told *to do*."

4.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Degree.

419. Clauses of this kind are introduced by the conjunction *than*, or the connective adverbs *the* (§ 270) and *as*.

Adverbial clauses denoting *degree* are always attached to adjectives or adverbs. They are almost always elliptical.

420. *E.g.*, "He is not so (*or* as) tall as I thought" (*i.e.*, as I thought *he was tall*). Here the clause "as I thought [he was tall]" qualifies (or is in the adverbial relation to) the adjective *tall*, and is co-ordinate with the demonstrative adverb *so;* and the relative adverb *as* at the beginning of the adverbial clause qualifies *tall* understood.

"He is taller than his brother;" *i.e.*, "He is taller than his brother [is tall]." "I love study more than ever [I loved it much]."

"The more I learn, the more I wish to learn." Here the adverbial sentence "*the more I learn*" qualifies the comparative *more* in the main clause, and is co-ordinate with the demonstrative adverb *the* which precedes it; the word *more* in the adverbial clause being itself qualified by the relative adverb *the*. (See § 270.) The first *the* is relative or subordinative, the second *the* is demonstrative.

5.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Cause.

421. These usually begin with the conjunctions *because* and *for*.

E.g., "I love him because he is good." Here "*because he is good*" is an adverbial clause qualifying the verb *love*.

"He could not have seen me, for I was not there." Here "*for I was not there*" is an adverbial clause qualifying the verb *could*.

6.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Purpose and Consequence.

422. *E.g.*, "He ran so fast *that he was out of breath*." Here the adverbial clause "*that he was out of breath*" stands in the adverbial relation to *fast*, and is co-ordinate with *so*, the indefinite meaning of which it amplifies and defines.

423. Adverbial clauses relating to *purpose* come also under this head. *E.g.*, "He labours *that he may become rich*." Here the adverbial clause qualifies the verb *labours*. "I will not make a noise, *lest I should disturb you*." Here the adverbial clause qualifies *will make*. The Subjunctive Mood is used in these clauses. It is usually in the compound form, but in the older writers we find the simple subjunctive, as, "Lest sin *surprise* thee;" "That I *be* not further tedious unto thee."

7.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Condition.

424. Clauses of this kind begin with the conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *except*, *though*, *although*, and the compounds *however*, *whoever*, *whatever*, &c.

425. In adverbial clauses of *condition*, the principal sentence is called the *consequent clause* (*i.e.*, the clause which expresses the *consequence*); the subordinate sentence is called the *hypothetical clause*.

426. Suppositions may be of two kinds.

(**A.**) Suppositions of the first kind relate to some *actual* event or state of things, which was, is, or will be *real*, independently of our thought respecting it. In such suppositions the indicative mood is employed.

427. *Examples.*—"If the prisoner committed the crime, he deserves death. If he did not commit it, all the witnesses swore falsely." "If he is at home, I shall see him." "If your letter is finished, bring it to me."

428. In like manner *concessive clauses* beginning with *though* or *although*, which relate to what *actually is or was the case*, have the indicative mood; as, "Though he was there, I did not see him."

430. **(B.)** Suppositions of the second kind treat an event or a state of things *as a mere conception of the mind*. In suppositions of this class, the subjunctive mood is employed.

431. A supposition which is contrary to some fact, present or past, is necessarily a mere conception of the mind, and therefore the subjunctive mood is used.

Examples.—"If he were present (which he *is* not), I would speak to him." "If our horse had not fallen down (which he did), we should not have missed the train."

432. In old-fashioned English and in poetry we also find the past perfect subjunctive used in the consequent clause, instead of the secondary form (or conditional perfect); as, "I *had fainted* unless I had believed to see the goodness of the Lord."

433. Clauses expressing a *wish* contrary to the fact have also the subjunctive mood. Thus, "I wish that he *were* here (which he is not)."

434. When we make a supposition with regard to the future, and state its consequence, as a mere conception of the mind, the subjunctive mood must be used in both clauses.

Examples.—"If he were rewarded, he would be encouraged to persevere." "If he went (*or* should go, *or* were to go) away without speaking to me, I should be grieved." "If he lost (*or* should lose, *or* were to lose) his money, he would never be happy again."

In suppositions the conjunction *if* is often omitted. *E.g.*, "Had I known this (*i.e.*, If I had known this), I would not have come."

435. Clauses beginning with *that* often have a *limiting* or *defining* (*i.e.*, an *adverbial*) force in relation to an adjective, as "He was vexed that you did not come"; "I am sure that he did it."

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

436. A **compound sentence** is one which consists of two or more co-ordinate principal sentences, joined together **by co-ordinative conjunctions**, as "He is happy, but I am not"; "They toil not, neither do they spin."

437. Co-ordinate clauses are grammatically **independent of each other**, whereas every subordinate clause is a *component part* of some **other** clause or sentence.

438. The co-ordinate members of a compound sentence may themselves be complex sentences, as (*a*), "I will tell your brother when I see him, but (*b*), I do not think that he will arrive this week."

N.B.—The conjunction itself does not enter into the construction of the clause which it introduces.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

439. When co-ordinate sentences contain either the same subject, the same predicate, the same object, the same complement, or the same adverbial adjunct to the predicate, it often happens that the portion which they have in common is expressed only once. In this case the sentence is said to be **contracted.**

Examples.—"Neither I nor you have seen that," *i.e.*, "Neither I [have seen that,] nor you have seen that." "He loved not wisely, but too well"; *i.e.*, "He loved not wisely, but [he loved] too well." Here the predicate is expressed only once.

"Religion purifies and ennobles the soul"; *i.e.*, "Religion purifies [the soul] and [religion] ennobles the soul." Here the subject and the object are expressed only once.

"He is either drunk or mad"; *i.e.*, "Either he is drunk or [he is] mad." Here the subject and the verb of incomplete predication *is* are expressed only once.

"He advances slowly but surely"; *i.e.*, "He advances slowly, but [he advances] surely." Here the common subject and predicate are expressed only once.

"He reads and writes well"; *i.e.*, "He reads [well] and [he] writes well." Here the common subject and the common adverbial adjunct are expressed only once.

440. Contracted sentences ought always to be so constructed, that when arranged without conjunctions, so that what is common to both or all is placed before or after what is not common, the common and separate portions, when read off continuously, make complete sense. Thus, "Religion purifies and ennobles the soul," may be written—

$$\text{Religion} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{purifies} \\ \text{ennobles} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{the soul;}$$

and complete sentences are obtained when the parts that are common, and written once, are read with each of the separate portions in succession. So, "He gave me not only some good advice, but also a sovereign," may be arranged thus—

$$\text{He gave me} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{not only some good advice} \\ \text{also a sovereign.} \end{matrix} \right.$$

"He possesses greater talents, but is less esteemed than his brother,"—

He { possesses greater talents / is less esteemed } than his brother.

If we take such a sentence as, "Man never is but always to be blest,' and subject it to this test, we see in a moment that it is faulty—

Man { never is / always to be } blest,

cannot be read off both ways.

COLLATERAL SENTENCES.

441. We frequently find sentences side by side, which have a connexion with each other as regards their sense and use, but have no *grammatical* link of connexion between them. For example—"I came. I saw. I conquered." "Fear God. Honour the king." "I was robbed of all my money; for that reason I was unable to proceed." "I believed, therefore have I spoken." Such sentences as those placed side by side in the above examples may be called *collateral* sentences.

442. A proper consideration of the nature of collateral sentences will enable us materially to thin the usual list of conjunctions. A word is not a conjunction because it *refers* us to something that precedes. Simple demonstratives do this. Such words as *therefore*, *consequently*, *likewise*, *also* (*i.e.*, *all so* = *just in that manner*), *nevertheless*, *notwithstanding*, are not conjunctions, but demonstrative adverbs.

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES.

443. Elliptical sentences differ from contracted sentences in the following respect:—In contracted sentences a certain portion which is common to the sentences is expressed only once in one of them, and has to be repeated in the others. In elliptical sentences, the part to be supplied in one clause, although suggested by what is expressed in the other, is not necessarily exactly the same in form. Moreover, contracted sentences or clauses are always co-ordinate; an elliptical clause is usually a subordinate clause, the portion to be supplied being suggested by the principal clause; as, "He is taller than I," *i.e.*, "than I am tall"; "This does not cost so much as that,' *i.e.*, "as that costs much."

SUMMARY OF THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

444. [Most of these rules, having been already stated in preceding parts of this work, are here only referred to, that the pupil may have the opportunity of studying them afresh in connexion with each other].

CONCORD.

445. In inflected languages (like Latin, German, or English in its earliest stage) **concord** means the use of those grammatical forms which are congruous with each other.

446. A verb must have that grammatical form which shows that it is of the same number and person as its subject.

An adjective must have that grammatical form which shows that it is of the same gender, number, and case as the noun or pronoun to which it belongs.

A relative pronoun must have that grammatical form which shows that it is of the same gender and number as its antecedent.

447. In modern English, grammatical inflexions have been to a great extent dispensed with. We have therefore very little of the above kinds of concord. But as regards *concord expressed by form* we still have the rule that a verb must agree with its subject in number and person, and that the demonstrative pronoun of the Third Person must agree in gender and number with the noun for which it stands. If the term *agreement* is used for anything beyond this, it can only denote *congruity of use*, that is, sameness in the grammatical relations which *might* be represented by form, but are not. To say, for example, that in "The woman who was hurt has recovered," 'who,' *agrees* in gender with 'woman,' means no more than that the pronoun, as used in that sentence, represents a female person.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

448. A **noun** in the **nominative case** may be used

1. As the subject of a sentence (§ 349).
2. In apposition to a noun or pronoun in the nominative case (§ 362, 2).
3. As the complement of an Intransitive or Passive Verb of Incomplete Predication (§ 393).
4. As a Nominative Absolute (§ 370, 5).
5. As a Nominative of Address (§ 66).

449. A **noun** in the **possessive case** must be attached to some

other noun, to which it forms an Attributive Adjunct* (§ 362, 3), and on which it is sometimes said to depend (see §§ 67, 362). This noun is sometimes omitted when it can readily be supplied in thought, as "I bought this at Smith's [shop]," "We went to St. Paul's [church]."

When something belongs to two or more persons in common, the inflexion of the possessive case is placed only after the last of the nouns that denote the possessors, when they are very closely connected, as 'Smith, Brown, and Robinson's shop'; 'Liddell and Scott's lexicon'; 'In William and Mary's reign.'

A complex name has the possessive inflexion at the end (§ 72).

450. A noun in the objective case may be used

1. As the direct object of a transitive verb (§ 366).
2. As the indirect object of a transitive verb, whether active or passive (§ 370, 4).
3. In apposition to a noun or pronoun in the objective case.
4. As the complement of a transitive verb of incomplete predication (§ 395).
5. In various Adverbial Adjuncts (§§ 370—372).
6. As a Cognate Objective (§ 371).
7. After Prepositions.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

451. The attributive and the predicative use of Adjectives are explained in §§ 360, 391. As regards adjectives used substantively and adjectives which have become substantives, see §§ 96—98.

452. Adjectives (including participles) sometimes relate to the substantive which is implied in a possessive pronoun, as "The Lord lighteneth *both their* eyes" (*i.e.*, the eyes of *both of them*); "For *all our* sakes," &c.

453. The Indefinite Article *an* or *a* should be repeated before each of a series of nouns standing for different things, as "I saw a horse, a cow, and a pig in the stable," unless the things are so closely connected with each other as to form a sort of compound group; as "He built a coachhouse and stable;" "Give me a cup and saucer." "A black

* A noun in the possessive case, however, does not cease to be a *noun*. It does not become an adjective because its *form* makes it partake of the functions of an adjective. In 'John's father' 'John's' is a *noun* in the possessive case, as in 'Caesaris uxor,' 'Caesaris' is a *noun* in the genitive case. Similarly a noun in the objective case, with or without a preposition, is often an *Adverbial Adjunct* (like a noun in the dative or ablative in Latin). But it is going too far to say that the noun in the objective, dative, or ablative *is* an adverb.

and white ball" can only mean 'a ball that is partly black and partly white.' If we mean to speak of *two* balls of different colours, we must say 'a black and a white ball.'

The singular demonstrative adjectives 'each' and 'every' may be placed once before two or more nouns, as "Every man, woman, and child was slaughtered"; "Each boy and girl received a present."

454. The definitive adjectives 'the,' 'these,' 'those,' 'my,' 'our,' &c., *need* not be repeated before each of several nouns, though of course they *may* be so repeated. We commonly say "The King and Queen"; "The tables and chairs were in confusion"; "He gathered all the apples and pears"; "My uncle, aunt, and cousin came yesterday." But the demonstratives must be repeated if a plural noun is accompanied by two or more adjectives marking qualities which do not belong in common to all the things named by the noun. Thus, "The clever and industrious boys," means 'the boys who are both clever and industrious,' but we cannot speak of "the idle and industrious boys," because the two attributes do not co-exist in the same boys; we must say 'the idle and the industrious boys.'

455. This principle, however, is often disregarded, as in, "The rich and poor meet together" (*Prov.* xxii. 2); while the article is sometimes repeated when only *one* thing is referred to, provided it is clear that only one thing is meant; as "He returned a sadder and a wiser man"; "You will find this road the shortest and the pleasantest."

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

456. Pronouns must agree in Gender, Number, and Person with the nouns for which they stand. Their case is determined by the construction of the clause in which they occur. Thus: 'I do not like John (*obj.*); he (*nom*) is an idle boy'; 'I know the man (*obj.*) whose (*poss.*) portrait hangs there,' &c. Even if the pronouns happen to *coincide* in case with the nouns to which they relate, this is not *grammatical agreement*, it is a mere accident.

457. The nominative and objective cases are constructed as in nouns. The possessive cases have become adjectives (§ 135).

458. The antecedent of a Relative Pronoun is sometimes disguised in the form of a Possessive (adjective) Pronoun, as "Whose is the crime, the scandal too be theirs."

459. The relative pronoun is frequently omitted (§ 164) when, if expressed, it would be in the objective case; but it is rarely omitted

when, if expressed, it would be in the nominative case. In the older writers, however, we find such expressions, as "I have a mind presages me such thrift;" "They are envious term thee parasite." The continuative relative (§ 412) can never be omitted.

460. When a relative refers to a noun which is in the predicative relation to a personal pronoun, the relative is sometimes made to agree in person with that pronoun, rather than with its actual antecedent. Thus: "I am . . . . a plain blunt man, that *love my* friend" (*Sh. J. C.* iii. 2); "Thou art the God that *doest* wonders" (*Ps.* lxxvii. 14).

461. Also when a relative clause explains the anticipatory subject 'it,' to which a personal pronoun is joined predicatively, the relative commonly agrees with the personal pronoun and not with its antecedent *it*. Thus we say "It is I who *am* in fault," though the sentence really means "*It* (the person) who is in fault, is I." This is a case of what is called *attraction*. Contrariwise the predicative pronoun is sometimes *attracted* into the case of the relative. It is usual to say "It is *I* who did it," but "It is *me* whom he *fears*."

462. It is not usual now to employ a relative pronoun in a complex adjective clause which contains an adverbial clause, so that the relative shall belong to the adverbial clause (§ 414). In the older writers such sentences were not uncommon, as "A treasure which if country curates buy, They Junius and Tremellius may defy"; "Which when Beelzebub perceived . . . he rose" (*P. L.* ii. 299). Respecting the pleonastic demonstrative used in such cases when the relative is in the nominative case, see § 382.

463. But a relative may be used in a complex adjective clause so as to belong to a subordinate substantive clause, as "That is a sort of wine which I know that he likes," where 'which' belongs in construction to the clause which begins with 'that.'

464. The pronoun *he*, *she*, *it*, ought to agree in gender and number with the noun to which it refers. But it often happens that it has to be used with reference to the individuals of a class that may consist of both sexes, distributed by means of the singular indefinite pronouns 'each' and 'every,' or to either of two singular nouns differing in gender, and connected by the alternative pronouns 'either—or,' 'neither—nor.' The difficulty that thus arises is sometimes evaded by using the plural, as "Let each esteem other better than themselves;" "If an ox gore a man or a woman so that *they* die" (*Exod.* xxi. 28); "Not on outward charms alone should man or woman build *their* pretensions to please" (*Opie.*) Some insist that in such cases alternative pronouns should be used, 'so that *he or she* die,' '*his or her* pretensions,' &c. But on the whole, the plural seems preferable, although, of course, it involves a breach of a rule. Such a sentence as "Each man,

woman, and child received his, her, and its share" is intolerably awkward. But the plural should be restricted to cases in which there is a patent discrepancy.

465. When pronouns, or pronouns and nouns, of different persons are coupled together, their relative position varies according to the number. In the singular the **Second** Person comes **before** the **First** or **Third** (*You and I; You and he*, or, *You and John*), but the **Third** comes **before** the **First** (*He and I*). In the plural **we** has the **first** place, **you** the **second**, and **they** the **third**. If a pronoun has to represent words of different persons, the Second Person takes precedence of the Third, and the First of either the Second or the Third, as "You and he must do *your* work"; "John and I lost *our* way." For the anticipatory use of *it* to mark the grammatical relation of something else, see §§ 387, 398.

Anomalous Constructions.

466. A Personal Pronoun used as the complement of a verb of incomplete predication is sometimes put in the objective case instead of the nominative in colloquial language, as "That's *him;*" "Who is there? *Me*, sir."

Expressions like these are probably formed on the analogy of the French 'c'est moi,' &c., which ousted the old construction (still found in Chaucer) 'It am I.' The change was perhaps facilitated by the fact that objective forms like *himself* could be used in apposition to nominatives, as, 'he himself said so.' In dignified language the nominative is preferable, as 'It is I, be not afraid' (*Mark* vi. 50); "Lord, is it I?" (*Matt.* xxvi. 22).

467. No satisfactory explanation can be given of the use of the relative *whom* after *than*, in cases where we should expect the nominative.* Even the demonstrative is sometimes similarly put in the objective case,† but this should be avoided.

The objective case is used in exclamations, as 'Ah me!'; 'Oh me unhappy.'

468. In such phrases as "a book of mine" we probably have merely a repetition of the idea of possession. We may say "That invention of yours is a useful one" to a man who had never made more than one.

469. Pronouns often represent not some particular noun, but the *general fact* implied in a preceding sentence, as:—"When ye come

* "Beelzebub . . . than whom, Satan except, none higher sat" (*Par. L.*, ii.). There is no grammatical justification for this. The case of an interrogative or relative pronoun ought to be the same as that of the demonstrative pronoun which would answer to it. But "None sat higher than *him*" would be bad grammar.

† *E.g.*, "A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both" (*Prov.* xxvii. 3).

together, *this* (i.e., *your coming together*) is not to eat the Lord's Supper;" "I did my best, but *it* (i.e., *my doing my best*) was of no use;" "He gained a prize, *which* (i.e., *his gaining a prize*) greatly pleased his friends."

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

Concord.

470. The general rule respecting the concord of verbs is, that a verb agrees with its subject in number and person (§ 376). See 380–382.

471. Words that are plural in form (as *mathematics*, *politics*) are sometimes treated as singular in construction (§ 58), and some singular nouns have been mistaken for plurals (§ 60). A plural used as the title of a book, &c., must be treated as a singular, as "Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets' is a work of great interest;" and generally when a plural denotes a whole of some kind, the verb may be singular, as "Forty yards is a good distance;" "Two-thirds of this is mine by right." "Twice two is four." For the usage when the subject is a collective noun, see § 376, and for the case of a compound subject, or of a noun in the singular to which other nouns are joined by means of *with*, § 377.

472. When subjects differing in number, or person, or both, are connected by *and*, the verb must always be in the plural; and in the first person, if one of the subjects is of that person; in the second person if one of the subjects is of that person, and none of the first, as, 'I and he are of the same age,' 'You and I shall be too late.'

473. Subjects connected by *either—or* and *neither—nor* imply an alternative. Hence a plural verb cannot be attached to two such subjects, if they are in the singular. The sentence is in fact contracted (§ 386), as, "Either John [is mistaken] or Thomas is mistaken"; "Neither John [is mistaken] nor Thomas is mistaken."

474. This sort of contraction should be avoided if the subjects differ in number or person. Some writers tell us in such cases to make the verb agree with the nearest subject. This is just endurable if the difference is one of number only, and the plural subject comes next the verb, as "Neither the emperor nor his generals were convinced." But such sentences as "Either he or I am to blame," "Neither we nor John is rich" are abominable. It is better to say "Either he is to blame or I am"; "We are not rich, nor John either." A singular verb must be used after each, every, either, neither, as "Every method *has* been tried." "Neither of them was in fault."

Use of the Moods.

475. Rules for the use of the **Indicative** and **Imperative** Moods are superfluous.

476. The rules for the use of the **Subjunctive Mood** in **hypothetical** and **concessive clauses** are given in §§ 430—435.

477. The **Subjunctive** is the proper mood to use after *that* and *lest* in clauses denoting **purpose** (§ 423).

478. The present tense of the subjunctive is used to express a wish; as "God *bless* you"; "God *be praised*"; "*May* every blessing *attend* you," &c.

479. The subjunctive mood was employed more commonly by the older writers than is the case now. It was used, for example, in dependent questions (as "I adjure Thee that Thou tell us whether Thou *be* the Christ"); also after *till* and *before*.

Sequence of Tenses.

480. The tense of the verb in an accessory or dependent clause commonly depends upon that of the verb in the principal clause. A present or future in the principal clause requires a present or future indicative, or a present subjunctive, in the dependent clause. A past tense in the main clause requires a past tense in the dependent clause; *e.g.*, "He does this that he may please me"; "He will do this that he may please me"; "He has done this that he *may* please me"; "He did this that he might please me"; "He says that he is better"; "He said that he was better," &c. But if the dependent clause states a *universal truth*, it is better to keep the present tense. Thus: "He allowed that all men *are* liable to error"; "He denied that God *exists*."

481. The **Infinitive Mood** may be used

1. As the subject or object of another verb (§§ 194—196, 385 387).
2. With a noun or pronoun in the objective as its subject, forming a substantive phrase which is the object of another verb (§ 397).
3. As an Attributive Adjunct to a noun (§ 362, 4), or as an Adverbial Adjunct to a verb or adjective (§ 370, 2). It is only the gerundial infinitive that can be thus used.
4. As the complement of a verb of incomplete predication (§ 396).

482. The *to* of an infinitive mood should never be separated from its verb by an adverb. Such phrases as 'To rightly use,' 'To really understand' are improper.

483. The origin and construction of the gerund in *-ing* are explained in §§ 200, 201. When a verbal substantive in *-ing* is preceded by *the* or followed by *of*, it must be regarded as the representative of a verbal noun in *-ung*, as in "land suitable for the planting of trees"; "During the reading of the will," &c. When preceded by *the*, it should be followed by *of*. When the verbal noun in *-ing* has an object, like a verb, it is the gerund.

484. The use of a participle where we ought to have a gerund, is a common error, as in, "I heard of *him running* away," instead of 'I heard of his running away'; "It is of no use you saying so," for 'It is of no use your saying so,' (*i.e.*, 'It—namely your saying so—is of no use'). In the case of personal and relative pronouns the gerund and possessive should always be used, as in the preceding sentences. With *this*, *that*, *each*, *all*, *either*, *neither*, the participial construction is proper, as "You will oblige me by *all leaving* the room"; "I have my doubts as to *this being* true"; "You seem to understand me, by *each* at once her choppy finger *laying* upon her skinny lips" (*Macbeth*). The best writers also give sentences like the following:—"The jealousy of his contemporaries prevented *justice being* done to him during his lifetime"; "I am afraid of *mischief resulting* from this"; "On some *brandy* being administered to him he revived"; "There is no record of any *payment* having been made"; "There was a story of *money having* been buried there"; "I then all smarting with *my wounds being* cold." (*Shaksp.*); "Upon *Nigel insisting*," &c. (*Scott*). These are analogous to the Latin *post urbem conditam*, &c. On the other hand most authorities would prefer "On *the boy's confessing* his fault I forgave him"; "On my father's hearing of this, he was amazed."

485. It will be observed that in such sentences the noun in the possessive case is commonly repeated in the form of a demonstrative pronoun, 'I forgave *him*,' '*He* was amazed.'

486. Constructions are sometimes adapted to the *general sense* of words and phrases rather than to their strictly *grammatical* force. Thus: "I *am afraid* (= *I fear*) that he will not come"; "Bid her *be judge* (= *judge*) whether Bassanio had not once a friend."

487. Great caution must be used in elliptical sentences (especially with *as* and *than*) to see that the right cases are used. The best way is to test the sentence by filling up the ellipsis, as "He loves me better than [he loves] thee"; "He loves me better than thou [lovest me]"; "He knows the man as well as I [know the man]"; "He knows the man as well as [he knows] me"; "I know no wiser man than he [is wise]" is correct; but "I have no other saint than *thou* to pray to" is wrong, because the construction springs out of "I have no other saint when [I have] thee."

488. A good deal of hypercriticism has been wasted on such phrases as "The three first verses of the chapter," &c. We are told that this is incorrect, because there is only one first verse. On this principle it is equally wrong to talk of 'The first hours of infancy,' or 'The last days of Pompeii,' for there is only *one* first hour, and *one* last day. Surely if there are several last days, their number may be specified. It would be the height of pedantry to alter "His two eldest sons went to sea" into "His eldest two sons went to sea"; yet strictly there can be only one eldest son. German writers see nothing wrong in such phrases as "die drei ersten," "die zwei letzten," &c. All these superlatives admit of a little laxity in their application, just as *chief* and *extreme* admit of the superlatives *chiefest* and *extremest*. 'The three first verses' simply means 'The three verses before which there is no other.' Those who tell us to write 'The first three verses,' and so on, must do so on the hypothesis that the whole number of verses is divided into *sets of three*, of which *sets* the first is taken. But what if the chapter only contains five altogether?

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

SEPARATION OF LOGICAL SUBJECT AND LOGICAL PREDICATE.

489. The first stage in the analysis of a simple sentence is to separate the grammatical subject with its adjuncts from the predicate verb with whatever is attached to it as object, complement, or adverbial adjunct. The grammatical subject with its attributive adjuncts forms the *logical* subject of the sentence; the predicate verb, with all that is attached to it, forms the *logical* predicate of the sentence (§ 345).

Examples.

Logical Subject. (*Grammatical Subject with Attributive Adjuncts.*)	*Logical Predicate.* (*Predicate Verb, with Objective and Adverbial Adjuncts.*)
Our messenger	has not arrived.
We	will carry all our property with us.
The village preacher's modest mansion	rose there.
The wretched prisoner, overwhelmed by his misfortunes,	was on the point of putting an end to his existence.
A bird in the hand	is worth two in the bush.

Analysis of the Logical Subject.

490. The following example illustrates the separation of the logical subject into the grammatical subject and its attributive adjuncts (§ 345).

"*The soldiers of the tenth legion, wearied by their long march, and exhausted from want of food, were unable to resist the onset of the enemy.*"

Logical Subject.		*Logical Predicate.*
Grammatical Subject.	*Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.*	
Soldiers	1. The 2. of the tenth legion 3. wearied by their long march 4. exhausted from want of food	were unable to resist the onset of the enemy.

Analysis of the Logical Predicate.

491. In the following examples the logical predicate is separated into its component parts :—

Logical Subject.	*Logical Predicate.*		
	Predicate Verb.	*Object, with Adjuncts.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts.*
The sight of distress	fills	a benevolent mind	1. always 2. with compassion.
We	will bend	our course	1. thither 2. from off the tossing of these fiery waves.

Analysis of both Subject and Predicate.

492. In the following example both the subject and the object of the verb are separated into the substantive and the attributive adjuncts of which they are composed :—

"*The mournful tidings of the death of his son filled the proud heart of the old man with the keenest anguish.*"

Subject.	*Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.*	*Predicate.*	*Object.*	*Attributive Adjuncts of Object.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*
tidings	1. The 2. mournful 3. of the death of his son	filled	heart	1. the 2. proud 3. of the old man	with the keenest anguish

Analysis of Complex Predicate.

493. The following examples show how a complex predicate (§§ 391-396) may be separated into its components :—

"*That hero was deservedly called the saviour of his country.*"

Subject with Adjuncts.	*Predicate.*		*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*	
	Verb of Incomplete Predication.	*Subjective Complement.*	*Adverbial Adjunct of Verb.*	*Adverbial Adjunct of Complement.*
that hero	was called	the saviour of his country	deservedly	

"*This misfortune will certainly make the poor man miserable for life.*"

Subject with Adjuncts.	*Predicate.*		*Object with Adjuncts.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*	
	Verb of Incomplete Predication.	*Objective Complement.*		*Adjunct of Verb.*	*Adjunct of Complement.*
This misfortune	will make	miserable	the poor man	certainly	for life

Complete Analysis of a Sentence.

494. The thorough analysis of a sentence is to be conducted in the following manner :—

i. Set down the subject of the sentence. (See § 384, &c., for a statement of what the subject may consist of.)

ii. Set down the words, phrases, or adjective clauses which may form attributive adjuncts of the subject. (See § 362 for a list of what these may consist of.)

iii. Set down the predicate verb. If the verb is one of incomplete predication, set down the complement of the predicate, and indicate that the verb and its complement make up the entire predicate (§§ 389-396).

iv. If the predicate be a transitive verb, set down the object of the verb (see § 397). If the predicate be a verb of incomplete predication followed by an infinitive mood, set down the object of the dependent infinitive (§ 396).

v. Set down those words, phrases, or adjective clauses, which are in the attributive relation to the object of the predicate, or to the object of the complement of the predicate, if the latter be a verb in the infinitive mood (§ 399).

vi. Set down those words, phrases, or adverbial clauses which are in the adverbial relation to the predicate, or to the complement of the predicate. (See § 370 for a list of what these may consist of.)

495. These various elements of the sentence may be arranged either in the mode adopted in the following examples, or in that indicated in the table at the end of the book.

EXAMPLES OF THE ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

496. *Having ridden up to the spot, the enraged officer struck the unfortunate man dead with a single blow of his sword.*"

Subject, 'officer.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject,
1. 'the' (§ 362, 1).
2. 'enraged' (§ 362, 1).
3. 'having ridden up to the spot' (§ 362, 1).

Predicate made up of
Verb of incomplete predication, 'struck.'
Objective complement (§ 395) 'dead.'

Object, 'man.'

Attributive adjuncts of object,
1. 'the.'
2. 'unfortunate.'

Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'on the spot' (§ 370, 2). 2. 'with a single blow of his sword' (§ 370, 2).

497. "*Coming home, I saw an officer with a drawn sword riding along the street.*"

Subject, 'I.'

Attributive adjunct of subject, 'coming home.'

Predicate, 'saw.'

Object, 'officer.'

Attributive adjuncts of object, { 1. 'an.' 2. 'with a drawn sword' (§ 362, 4). 3. 'riding along the street.'

498. "*It is I.*"

Subject, 'It.'

Predicate made up of { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is.' *Subjective complement,* 'I.'

499. "*Who are you* ?*"

Subject, 'you.'

Predicate made up of { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'are.' *Subjective complement,* 'who?'

500. "*Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger, comes dancing from the East.*"

Subject, 'star.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject, { 1. 'the' (§ 362, 1). 2. 'bright' (§ 362, 1). 3. 'day's harbinger' (§ 362, 2).

Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'comes. *Subjective complement,* 'dancing' (§ 391).

Adverbial adjunct of the predicate, 'from the East' (§ 370, 2).

501. "*He found all his wants supplied by the care of his friends.*"

Here 'supplied ——— friends' forms an indirect predicate of 'wants.' It means 'he found that all his wants had been supplied, &c.' The construction is the same as in 'I saw the man hanged.' The whole phrase forms a complex object of 'found.'

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* The construction of the interrogative sentence is the same as that of the declarative answer, "I am he."

502. "*The duke will never grant this forfeiture to hold.*"

Subject, 'duke.'

Attributive adjunct of subject, 'the.'

Predicate, 'will grant.'

Objective infinitive phrase (§ 397) 'this forfeiture to hold.'

Adverbial adjunct of pred. 'never.'

503. "*How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds makes ill deeds done.*"

Subject, 'sight.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. 'the.' 2. 'of means to do ill deeds.'

Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'makes.' *Objective complement*, 'done.'

Object, 'deeds.'

Attributive adjunct of object, 'ill.'

Adverbial adjunct of pred. 'how oft.'

504. "*A man of weak health is incapable of the thorough enjoyment of life.*"

Subject, 'man.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. 'a' (§ 362, 1). 2. 'of weak health' (§ 362, 4).

Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.' *Complement of predicate*, 'incapable' (§ 393).

Adverbial adjunct of the complement of the predicate, 'of the thorough enjoyment of life' (§ 370, 2).

505. "*And now, their mightiest quelled, the battle swerved, with many an inroad gored.*"

Subject, 'battle.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. *Article*, 'the.' 2. *Participial phrase*, 'with many an inroad gored.'

Predicate, 'swerved.'

Adverbial adjuncts of predicate. 1. *Adverb* 'now.' 2. *Noun with attributive adjunct, in the nominative absolute*, 'their mightiest quelled' (§ 370, 5).

506. "He gave him a letter to read." Here 'him' (*i.e.*, 'to him')

and 'to read' (*ad legendum*, § 196) form adverbial adjuncts of the predicate.

507. It is often difficult to decide whether an adverbial adjunct should be taken as modifying the predicate, or as modifying some adjective.

Thus the sentence "He is nearly ready" may mean either "He wants but little of being ready" (just as when we say "he nearly fainted," i.e., 'was within a little of fainting'), or "He is in a state which approaches readiness." It matters little which explanation is adopted. In "We were nearly killed," it is obviously best to take 'nearly' as modifying the predicate 'were killed.' In "The work is half finished," the adverb 'half,' had better be taken with the adjective 'finished."

508. "*All but one were killed.*"

Here in Anglo-Saxon we should have 'ealle bútan ánum,' where the words *bútan ánum* form an adverbial (or limiting) adjunct of *ealle*. The modern expression may be dealt with in the same way, as must also such phrases as 'the best but one,' 'the last but two,' &c. But in Anglo-Saxon and early English, when a *negative assertion* was thus limited, the conjunctive use of *but* supplanted the prepositional use (*see Note**, p. 124), giving a separate elliptical sentence. Thus: 'There is no wyght that hereth it but we tweye' (*Chaucer, Clerke's Tale*, 476). The construction in full is 'but we two hear it.' In modern English this has been extended to the use of *but* after *all*. Thus: 'The boy stood on the burning deck, Whence *all but he* had fled' (*F. Hemans*). Here *but he* is a mere anomalous phrase limiting '*all*'. As the sentence stands the ellipsis cannot be filled up. The construction is nevertheless usual, at all events when the limiting phrase comes before the verb. When the limitation affects a word in the objective case, of course the objective case follows '*but*,' as 'I saw nobody but him'.

509. "*But being charged, we will be still by land*" (*Antony and Cleopatra*, iv. 11, 1).

Here 'but being charged' is a gerund preceded by the preposition *but*, and means 'leaving out the case of being charged.' The phrase forms an adverbial adjunct to the predicate verb *will be*. The sentence means, "Unless we are attacked, we will make no movement by land."

510. "*Whence, but from the author of all ill, could spring so deep a malice?*"

The last example suggests that if we take '*but*' as a preposition (= *without*, or *leaving out*) we should supply the gerund* '*springing*,' 'but *springing* from, &c.,' meaning 'without springing from,' 'leaving out the case of springing from, &c. Similarly, 'Matchless but [being matched] with the Almighty'; 'He never comes but [coming] when he is not wanted,' &c.

We may, however, treat 'but' as the subordinate conjunction mean

* It will be found that this explanation is the key to a great many troublesome constructions in which 'but' plays a part. Thus, "He was all but killed" = 'he was all but (= except) being killed'; "He lived but a month" = 'he lived [not] but [living] a month."

ing 'unless' (see *Eng. Gram.* § 293), and supply a verb, making the full construction, 'but [*it sprang*] from the author of all ill,' *i.e.*, 'unless it sprang, &c.'; 'but [*he were matched*] with the Almighty'; 'but [*he come*] when he is not wanted.'

Similarly, 'he would have died but for me' would be in full, 'but [*it had been*] for me.'

511. "*I can but lament the result.*"

In such sentences it seems as though *but* were an adverb, meaning *only*. It is, however, the preposition *but* followed by a verb in the infinitive (or substantive) mood. In reality all such constructions have arisen from the improper omission of a negative. In Chaucer we find, "I n'am but a leude compilatour;" "That I may have not but my meat and drinke" (Wedgwood, *Dict. s. v.* 'but').

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

512. A Substantive Clause (or Noun Sentence, as it is often called) does the same sort of work in a sentence as a Noun. An Adjective Clause does the same sort of work as an Adjective. An Adverbial Clause does the same sort of work as an Adverb.

It follows that every subordinate clause is an integral part of the entire sentence, and has the same relation to some constituent part of the sentence as if it were a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

In the analysis of a complex sentence this relation must be clearly indicated.*

513. When there are subordinate clauses, the analysis of the entire sentence must first be conducted *as if for each subordinate clause we had some single word.* When the relation of the several clauses to the

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* It is a common practice in treatises on Analysis to ignore this. In dealing with such a sentence as "The manager declared that the alarm which spread through the audience when the noise was heard, was quite groundless," we shall commonly find it split up, *to begin with*, into separate parts, thus :—

A. The manager declared.
B. That the alarm was quite groundless.
C. Which spread through the audience.
D. When the noise was heard.

We shall then be told that B is "a noun sentence to A; C is an adjective sentence to B; and D is an adverbial sentence to C." This is objectionable. To talk of one sentence being 'a noun sentence to another' is simply meaningless. Who ever talks of a *noun* being 'a *noun to* a sentence. A noun has *some definite function* to fulfil in a sentence. It is a subject or an object, or in apposition to another noun, or governed by a preposition. A Substantive Clause (or noun sentence) *has exactly the same function as a noun*, and any system of Analysis which ignores this, and shirks the trouble of explaining *what that function is*, is faulty and misleading. In the example given above, it is *absolutely incorrect* to say that the main sentence is 'The manager declared.' We have not got a complete sentence of any kind till the object of the verb 'declared' has been stated. Moreover, this practice leads beginners to suppose that a subordinate sentence is something which is *tacked on to* something else which is complete in itself. It certainly saves trouble; but if saving trouble is the main thing to be considered, that object will be most completely realised by leaving Analysis alone altogether.

main sentence and to each other has thus been clearly marked, the subordinate clauses are to be analysed on the same principles as simple sentences. Mere conjunctions (§ 286) do not enter into the grammatical structure of the clauses which they introduce. No combination of words forms a *dependent sentence* without a *finite verb* expressed or understood.

514. It will greatly conduce to the clearness of the analysis, if subordinate clauses are underlined in different ways, so as to indicate their nature. A thick line may denote a substantive clause, a thin line an adjective clause, and a dotted line an adverbial clause. If a subordinate clause contains others, the line proper to the *containing* clause must first be drawn under the whole, *including what is contained*, and then the contained clause must be further underlined in its own way. Then if a number be placed at the beginning of the line by which a subordinate clause is underscored, and the same number be attached by a bracket to the word to which the clause is related, being placed *before* the word (verb), when the clause is a subject, or *after* in other cases (thus 2. *appears*, or *heard* 3.), the relation of the parts of the sentence will be visible at a glance. Thus :—

"I have heard 1.) that my brother has lost at play the money 2.)
(1.)
which was given 3.) to him that he might pay his debts."
(2)
(3)

This shows at a glance the degree of subordination of the various clauses, and the way in which they are built into the structure of the entire sentence. This method will be adopted in the examples that follow. Each clause, as it is reached in the analysis, may be denoted for subsequent reference by the number placed before the line under it. This underlining and numbering however is not *essential* to the Analysis.

SENTENCES CONTAINING SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

I. A Substantive Clause as the Subject of a Verb.

515. "*That you have wronged me* (1 *doth appear in this.*"
(1)

Subject (*substantive clause*), 'that you have wronged me' (1).
Predicate, 'doth appear.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'in this.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'you.'
Predicate, 'have wronged.'
Object, 'me.'

516. "*It* (2 *is not true that he said that.*"
(2)

Temporary or provisional subject, 'it.'
Real subj. (*substantive clause*), 'that he said that.'
Predicate, made up of { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.' / *Subjective complement*, 'true.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate 'not.'

517. "(1. *Methinks the lady doth protest too much.*"
(1)

Subject, [*that*] 'the lady doth protest too much' (1).
Predicate, 'thinks' (*i.e.*, 'appears,' see § 244).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, '[to] me.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'lady.'
Attributive adjunct of subject, 'the.'
Predicate, 'doth protest.'
Object, 'too much.'

518. "(1. *Him thought his sorrowful heart would break.*"
(1)

Here the substantive clause "[*that*] his sorrowful heart would break" is the subject of the verb *thought*.

II. A Substantive Clause as the Object of a Verb.

519. "*You know* 1) *very well that I never said so.*"
(1)

Subject, 'you.'
Predicate, 'know.'
Object (*substantive clause*), 'that I never said so' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'very well.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, 'said.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 1. 'never.' 2. 'so.'

520. "*He asked* 1) *me how old I was.*"
(1)

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, 'asked.'
Object (*substantive clause*) 'how old I was' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'me' (*i.e.*, 'of me').

Analysis of (1).

Subject 'I.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.' / *Subjective complement*, 'old.'
Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'how.'

III. A Substantive Clause in Apposition to a Noun.

521. "*Who can want the thought* 1) *how monstrous it was for* (1)
Malcolm and Donalbain to kill their gracious father."

Subject, 'who.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'can.' / *Infinitive complement,* 'want.'
Object, 'thought.'
Attributive adjuncts of object, { 1. 'the.' / 2. (*Substantive clause in apposition*) 'how monstrous ——— father' (1).

Analysis of (1).

Provisional subject, 'it.'
Real subject, 'to kill their gracious father.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'was.' / *Subjective complement,* 'monstrous.'
Adverbial adjuncts { 1. (*of verb*)—'for Malcolm and Donalbain.' / 2. (*of complement*)—'how.'

522. "*The hope* 1) *that I shall be successful sustains me.*" (1)

The substantive clause 'that I shall be successful,' may be termed vaguely an *enlargement* of the subject *hope*, or it may be called (more exactly) an *objective adjunct* of the noun.*
Such sentences as "There is no proof that he said so," "There was a report that you were dead," should be dealt with in a similar manner.

523. "*There was a report that you were dead.*" (1)

Subject, 'report.
Attributive adjunct of subject, 'a.'
Objective adjunct of subject (substantive clause), 'that you were dead.'
Predicate, 'was.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'there.'

IV. A Substantive Clause after a Preposition.

524. "*I should have forgiven him, but* 2) *that he repeated the offence.*" (2)

Here we have a substantive clause preceded by the preposition *but*, the whole phrase forming an adverbial adjunct of the predicate "should have forgiven" (§ 370, 2).

* An objective case follows a transitive verb, not because the verb is a declarative word, but because it denotes an action directed to some object. Gerunds (*i.e.* verbal ***nouns***) have objects after them and other nouns *implying* a transitive action may have a substantive clause after them as an object. Such a clause may be termed an ***objective adjunct*** of the noun.

525. "*Thieves are not judged, but* 2) *they are by to hear.*"*
(2)

"*It shall go hard but* 3) *I will better the instruction.*"†
(3)

In these two sentences, owing to the omission of the conjunction 'that,' the preposition 'but' may be regarded as having assumed the force of a conjunction, like *after*, *before*, &c.

SENTENCES CONTAINING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

526. An **Adjective Clause** is always in the **Attributive Relation to some noun or pronoun** in the sentence of which it forms a part.

527. "*The cohort* 1) *which had already crossed the river, quickly came to blows with the enemy.*"
(1)

Subject, 'cohort.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. *Article*, 'the.' 2. *Adjective clause*, 'which had already crossed the river' (1).
Predicate, 'came.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 1. 'quickly.' 2. 'to blows.' 3. 'with the enemy.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'which.'
Predicate, 'had crossed.'
Object, 'river.'
Attributive adjunct to object, 'the.'
Adverbial adjunct to predicate, 'already.'

528. "*Give me that large book* 2) *that you have in your hand.*"
(2)

Here the adjective clause "that you have in your hand" is in the attributive relation to the object 'book.' The relative *that* is the object of *have*.

529. "*Give* 3) *me what you have in your hand.*"
(3)

Here the adjective clause, "what you have in your hand" is used substantively, that is, without having its antecedent *that* expressed. In the analysis we may either introduce the word *that*, the object of *give*,

* That is, "without their being by to hear," or "the case of their being by to hear being excluded."
† That is, "The case of my bettering the instruction being excluded, it shall go hard.

and set down the relative adjective clause as an attributive adjunct to it, or we may at once call the adjective clause the object of the verb 'give' (§ 403).

Care must be taken not to confound adjective clauses like the above with substantive clauses beginning with the *interrogative what*, as "*Tell me what he said*" (§ 409).

530. "*I return to view where once the cottage stood.*"

Here 'where once the cottage stood' is an adjective clause qualifying the noun *place* understood, which forms the object of *view*.

531. "*Who is there but admires such deeds?*"

The verb *admires* requires a subject. The relative *who* is really understood ('but who admires,' &c.). We thus get an adverbial adjunct to the predicate, the sentence being equivalent to, "Who, if we leave out him who admires such deeds, is there?" *Who admires such deeds* is then an adjective clause used substantively, that is, without an antecedent expressed, and preceded by a preposition. Or we may supply a demonstrative pronoun, 'but *he* admires, &c.,' *i.e.*, 'unless he admires, &c.' Compare, 'there's ne'er a villain living in all Denmark but *he's* an arrant knave' (*Shaksp.*).

Many grammarians, however, treat 'but' as a word which *has absorbed the relative*, and so acquired its pronominal functions, and become equivalent to 'who not,' and they would make 'but' itself the subject of the verb '*admires.*' This, however, is putting a very violent strain upon the force of words. There is no more difficulty in supplying a pronoun after '*but*' than after '*than*' in 'He never says more than [what] is necessary.'

532. "*I have not from your eyes that show* 4) *of love as I was* (4)
wont to have."

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, 'have.'
Object, 'show.'
Attributive adjuncts of Object,
1. 'that.'
2. 'of love.'
3. (*Adj. clause*) 'As I was wont to have. (4.)

Analysis of (4).

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.'
Subjective complement, 'wont to have.'
Object. (*quasi-relative pronoun*, see § 165) 'as.'

533 "*His conduct is not such as I admire.*"

Here *as I admire* must be taken as an adjective clause co-ordinate with *such*, and forming an attributive adjunct to the noun 'conduct' understood, which is the complement of the predicate 'is.' *As* does duty for a relative pronoun, and is the object of *admire* (§ 411).

SENTENCES CONTAINING ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

534. An **Adverbial Clause** is always in the **Adverbial Relation** to a **verb, adjective,** or **adverb** in the whole sentence of which it forms a part.

When such a clause begins with a *subordinative conjunction*, the conjunction does not enter into the construction of the clause. When the clause begins with a *connective adverb*, that adverb must have its own relation indicated in the analysis.

535. "*When, in Salamanca's cave,*
(2) .....
Him listed his magic wand to wave,
.....
The bells would ring 2) *in Notre Dame.*"

Subject (*with attributive adjunct*), 'the bells.'
Predicate, 'would ring.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 1. (*Adverbial clause*) 'when in Salamanca's ——— wave' (2). 2. 'in Notre Dame.'

Analysis of (2).
Subject (*Infinitive phrase*), 'to wave his magic wand.'
Predicate, 'listed,' *i.e.*, 'pleased.'
Object, 'him.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 1. 'When.' 2. 'in Salamanca's cave'

536. "*He ran so fast* 3) *that I could not overtake him.*"
(3) .....

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, 'ran.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 'fast,' *qualified by*—1. 'so.' 2. 'that I could not overtake him' (3).

Analysis of (3).

(*Adverbial clause co-ordinate with* 'so.')

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'could.'
{ *Complement*, 'overtake,'
Object, 'him.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 1. 'that,' 2. 'not.'

It seems natural to regard *that* in this sentence as the equivalent of the Latin connective adverb *ut*, and in fact *that* has replaced an older *as* which had its full adverbial as well as connective force. Thus: 'He miscarried by unskilfulness so *as* the loss can no way be ascribed to cowardice' (*Hobbes*); 'I feel such sharp dissension in my breast *as* I am sick' (*Shakspeare*).

537. "*He spoke* 4) *loud that I might hear him.*"
(4) .....

Here also 'that' is a conjunctive adverb, and the clause 'that I might hear him' is an adverbial clause modifying 'spoke,' while 'that' itself modifies 'might hear.'

538. "*Whatever the consequence may be, I shall speak* 5) *the truth.*" (5) .....

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, 'shall speak.'
Object (*with adjunct*), 'the truth.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, { *Adverbial clause of concession*, 'whatever the consequence may be' (5).

Analysis of (5).

Subject (*with attributive adjunct*), 'the consequence.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'may be.'
{ *Subjective complement*, 'whatever.'

539. "*He is not so wise as he is witty.*"
(1) .....

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.
{ *Subjective complement*, 'wise.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'not.'
Co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of complement, { 1. 'so.'
{ 2. 'as he is witty' (1).

Analysis of (1).

(*Adverbial clause qualifying* 'wise,' *and co-ordinate with* 'so.')

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
{ *Subjective complement*, 'witty.'
Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'as.'

540. "*Beware how you meddle with these matters.*"

Subject (*understood*), 'you.'

Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'be.' / *Complement of predicate*, 'ware.'

Adverbial adjunct of complement, { (*Substantive clause used adverbially*, § 435), 'how you meddle with these matters' (A).

Analysis of (A).

Subject, 'you.'
Predicate, 'meddle.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'how.' / 2. 'with these matters.'

541. Subordinate Clauses contained within clauses which are themselves subordinate.

The lines drawn under the clauses show at a glance the containing and contained clauses, and indicate to what class they belong.

542. "*He inferred* 1) *from this that the opinion of the judge was* 2) *that the prisoner was guilty.*"

(1) (2)

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, 'inferred.'
Object, { *Substantive clause*, 'That the opinion of the judge was that the prisoner was guilty' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'from this' (§ 370, 2)

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'opinion.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject, { 1. 'the.' / 2. 'of the judge.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.' / *Complement* (*Substantive clause*) 'that the prisoner was guilty' (2).

Analysis of (2).

Subject (*with attributive adjunct*), 'the prisoner.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.' / *Complement*, 'guilty.'

543. "*Tell* 1) *me who you think* 2) *that man is.*"

(1) (2)

Subject (*understood*), 'you.'
Predicate, 'tell.'
Object (*substantive clause*), 'who you think that man is' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'me.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject. 'you.'
Predicate, 'think.'
Object (*substantive clause*), 'who that man is' (2).

Analysis of (2).

Subject with Adjunct, 'that man.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is.'
{ *Subjective complement,* 'who.'

544. "*If it were* 3) *done when 'tis done, then it* (1 *were* 2) *well it were done quickly.*"
(2) (3) (1)

Provisional Subject, 'it.'
Real Subject (*Substantive clause*), '[that] it were done quickly' (1).
Predicate, 'were.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'well.' 2. 'then.' 3. (*Adverbial Clause co-ordinate with* 'then') 'if it were done when 'tis done' (2).

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'it.'
Predicate, 'were done' (*passive verb*)
Adverbial adjunct of pred., 'quickly.'

Analysis of (2).

Subject, 'it.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'were.'
{ *Complement,* 'done' (i.e., *finished and done with*).
Adverbial adjunct of complement (*adverbial clause*) { 'when 'tis done' (3)

Analysis of (3).

Subject, 'it.'
Predicate, 'is done' (*simple passive*).
Adverbial adjunct of pred., 'when.'

EXAMPLES OF THE ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

545. Ordinary sentences of this kind require no special discussion. All that has to be done is to analyse each of the co-ordinate clauses separately, omitting the conjunctions by which they are connected, but inserting *not* if the conjunctions are *neither—nor.*

546. There is, however, one class of co-ordinate clauses which require care, namely those in which the relative pronoun has a *continuative* force. (See § 412).

547. "*At last it chaunced this proud Sarazin*
To meete me wand'ring; who perforce me led
With him away but never yet could win."

This sentence must first be split up into the three co-ordinate sentences.
(A). "At last it chaunced this proud Sarazin to meete me wand'ring."
(B). "Who perforce me led with him away"
(C). "[Who] never yet could win [me]."

Analysis of (A).

Provisional subject,	'it.'
Real subject (*infinitive phrase*),	'to meete me wand'ring.'
Predicate,	'chaunced.'
Indirect object,	'this proud Sarazin.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate,	'at last.'

The analysis of (B) and (C) presents no difficulty. They are *principal* clauses co-ordinate with (A); *who* being *continuative* in its force.

548. "*This is now our doom, which if we can sustain and bear, our supreme foe in time may much remit his anger.*"

First split this into the following :—

(A) "This is now our doom,"
(B) "Which if we can sustain and bear, our supreme foe in time
(1) .....
may much remit 1) his anger."

Analysis of (B).

Subject (*with adjunct*),	'our supreme foe.'
Predicate,	*Verb of incomplete predication*, 'may.' / *Infinitive complement*, 'remit.'
Object (*with adjunct*),	'his anger.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,	1. (*Adverbial clause*) 'which ——— and bear' (1). / 2. 'in time.' / 3. 'much.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject,	'we.'
Predicate,	*Verb of incomplete predication*, 'can.' / *Infinitive complement*, 'sustain and bear.'
Object,	'which.'

Subordinate Compound Clauses.

549. These present no difficulty when they are expressed at full length. Thus: "He told me that the dyke had burst and that the river was flooding the country." Here we simply have a compound object (§ 397). In analysis we should put after the predicate.

Object (*compound*),	1. 'That the dyke had burst.' / 2. 'That the river was flooding the country.'

550. But the greater number of sentences with compound subordinate clauses belong to the class of contracted sentences.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

551. Before a contracted sentence (§ 439) is analysed, the parts omitted must be expressed at full length.

552. "*We perceive that these things not only did not happen, but could not have happened.*" In full—

[(A) 'We perceive that these things not only did not happen.'

[(B) 'We perceive that these things could not have happened.'

553. "*Many instances were related of wise forethought, or firm action, or acute reply on his part, both in the senate and in the forum.*" In full—

[(A) 'Many instances were related of wise forethought on his part in the senate.']

[(B) 'Many instances were related of wise forethought on his part in the forum.']

[(C) 'Many instances were related of firm action on his part in the senate.']

[(D) 'Many instances were related of firm action on his part in the forum.']

[(E) 'Many instances were related of acute reply on his part in the senate']

[(F) 'Many instances were related of acute reply on his part in the forum.']

554. "*Every assertion is either true or false, either wholly or in part.*" *In full—*

[(A) 'Every assertion is true wholly.']
[(B) 'Every assertion is true in part.']
[(C) 'Every assertion is false wholly.']
[(D) 'Every assertion is false in part.']

555. When co-ordinate sentences or clauses are connected by *neither*, *nor*, the simple negative *not* may be substituted for each conjunction in the analysis, the *conjunctive* portion of the words being omitted.

"*The man who neither reverences nobleness nor loves goodness, is hateful.*" *In full—*

[(A) 'The man who reverences not nobleness is hateful.']
[(B) 'The man who loves not goodness is hateful.']

556. "*Whether he succeed or fail, it will not matter to me.*" *In full—*

[(A) 'If he succeed, it will not matter to me.']
[(B) 'If he fail, it will not matter to me.']

Elliptical Sentences.

557. An elliptical sentence is one in which something is omitted which is essential to the complete construction of the sentence, but which is readily supplied in thought, without being expressed in words.

In elliptical sentences that which is omitted is not common to two or more clauses.

Relative pronouns and relative adverbs are sometimes omitted.

558. "He left the day *I arrived.*"

In full—"He left the day *that* (or *on which*) I arrived." (In this sentence *the day* is in the adverbial relation to *left; that* (or *on which*) is in the adverbial relation to *arrived*; and the dependent clause *that I arrived* is an adjective clause qualifying *day*.

559. The commonest (and the most troublesome) elliptical sentences are those which begin with *as* and *than*. In analysing them care must be taken to ascertain *what the predicate really is* in the dependent clause, and what word the adverb *as* qualifies.

560. "He is as tall as I am."* In full—"He is as tall as I am *tall*."

If we ask what the predicate in the dependent clause is (or what is predicated of *me*), the answer is, "*being tall;*" and moreover not *being tall* simply, but *being tall in a certain degree*, which degree is denoted by the relative adverb *as*, which qualifies *tall* (understood) in the adverbial clause, just as the demonstrative adverb *as* qualifies *tall* in the main clause.

The adverbial clause beginning with *as* is always co-ordinate with the preceding demonstrative *as* or *so*, and modifies (adverbially) the same word.

Subject, 'He.'
Predicate { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
{ *Subjective complement*, 'tall.'
Co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of complement of predicate, { 1. 'as.'
{ 2. 'as I am [tall].' (A)

Analysis of (A).

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'am.'
{ *Complement of predicate*, 'tall.'
Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'as.'

* It may be taken as a general rule that after *as* we must supply a word of the same kind of meaning as the word qualified by the simple or demonstrative adverb in the main clause.

561. We must deal in a similar manner with such sentences as :—

"He has not written so much 1) as I have [written much]."
(1)

"He has lived as many 2) years as you have lived [many] months."
(2)

"He does not write so well 3) as you [write well]."
(3)

"I would as soon 4) die as [I would soon] suffer that."
(4)

"He looks 5) as [he would] look 6) if he knew me."
5) (6)

"I cannot give you so much 7) as five pounds [are much]."
(7)

"He cannot [do] so much 8) as [to] read [is much]."
(8)

562. When 'as' answers to 'such' in a sentence like "We are *such* stuff *as* dreams are made of," it is not an adverb, but a relative pronoun (§ 165). But in such a sentence as "I am not *such* a fool as [I should be a fool] to believe that," the clause beginning with 'as' is an adverbial clause modifying *such* 'Such a fool' = 'so foolish.'

563. "*He is taller* 1) *than I am.* *In full*—"*He is taller than I am tall.*"
(1)

Here the adverbial clause modifies the predicate in the main sentence. *Than* originally meant *when*,* and the sentence once implied :—"He is taller *when* I am tall," *i.e.*, 'when my tallness is taken into account.' But *than* has so completely lost this meaning, that it may now be treated as a mere conjunction, not modifying any word in its own clause, and therefore disregarded when that clause is analysed separately. The clause beginning with *than* is always an adverbial adjunct of the word in the comparative degree in the main clause.

564. Deal in a similar manner with such sentences as the following :—

"He is more 1) industrious than clever." In full—"He is more
(1)
industrious than he is clever."

"He has written more 2) letters than you [have written many letters]."
(2)

* *Than* does not correspond exactly to the Latin *quam*. The latter is a connective adverb of *degree*, answering to *Tam*. 'Than' never had this sense.

" He is richer 3) than you suppose 4) [that he is rich]."
(3).....
(4)———

" Our habits are costlier than Lucullus wore." That is, " Our habits are costlier than [what habits = the habits which] Lucullus wore [were costly].

PUNCTUATION.

565. In speaking, the words of a sentence, especially if it be a complex one, are not uttered consecutively without any break. Certain pauses are made to mark more clearly the way in which the words of the sentence are grouped together.

In writing, these pauses are represented by marks called *stops or points*. *Punctuation* (derived from the Latin *punctum*, a *point*) means " the right mode of putting in points or stops."

The stops made use of are—1. The Comma (,). 2. The Semicolon (;). 3. The Colon (:). 4. The Full Stop or Period (.).*

As it is impossible to lay down perfectly exact rules for the introduction of pauses in speaking, so it will be found that in many cases the best writers are not agreed as to the use of stops in writing. All that can be done is to lay down the most general principles.

566. The Full Stop is used at the end of a complete and independent sentence, but not at the end of a sentence which is followed by another *collateral* sentence (§ 441).

567. The Colon and Semicolon are only placed between sentences which are grammatically complete, not between the various portions of either simple or complex sentences (§ 351). The colon is placed between sentences which are grammatically independent, but sufficiently connected in sense to make it undesirable that there should be a complete break between them. Thus : " The Chief must be Colonel : his uncle or his brother must be Major : the tacksmen must be the Captains " (*Macaulay*). " Nothing else could have united her people : nothing else could have endangered or interrupted our commerce " (*Landor*). But in similar cases many writers only use the semicolon ; no exact rule can be given.

A colon (with or without a dash after it) is often put before a quotation which is not immediately dependent on a verb ; as : 'On his tombstone was this inscription :—" Here lies an honest man."'

568. The semicolon is commonly placed between the co-ordinate

* These words (properly speaking) are names not of the *stops*, but of the portions of sentences which they mark off. *Comma* means a *clause* ; *Colon*, a *limb* or *member* of a sentence ; *Semicolon*, a half *Colon* ; *Period*, a complete sentence.

members of a compound sentence, when they are connected by *and*, *but*, or *nor*; as: "Time would thus be gained; and the royalists might be able to execute their old project" (*Macaulay*). It is also inserted when three or more co-ordinate sentences are united *collaterally* (§ 441), with a conjunction before the last; as: "A battering-ram was invented, of light construction and powerful effect; it was transported and worked by the hands of forty soldiers; and as the stones were loosened by its repeated strokes, they were torn with long iron hooks from the walls" (*Gibbon*). When the co-ordinate sentences are short and closely connected in meaning, commas are placed between them, or such parts of them as remain after contraction (§ 439), as: 'I ran after him, but could not catch him.' Sometimes even commas are unnecessary, as: "He reads and writes incessantly." "He learns neither Latin nor Greek." "He struck and killed his brother." "Either you or I must leave the room."

569. In a simple or complex sentence commas should be inserted whenever, in reading or speaking, short pauses would be made to show more clearly the way in which the words are grouped together. It is impossible to lay down hard and fast rules. When no pause is required in reading, no comma is necessary in writing. The following directions may be of service:—

In simple sentences the comma is inserted—

1. Before the main verb, when the subject is accompanied by an attributive adjunct which, with its adjuncts, forms a combination of words of considerable length. As, "The injustice *of the sentence pronounced upon this wise and virtuous man*, is evident." But if the adjunct is expressed briefly, the comma is not used; as, "The injustice *of the sentence* is evident."

2. Before and after any participle (not used as a mere qualitative adjective) or participial phrase; as, "The man, having slipped, fell over the cliff." "The general, having rallied his soldiers, led them forwards." "Undaunted, he still struggled on." "All night the dreadless angel, unpursued, through heaven's wide champaign winged his glorious way."

3. Before and after any attributive adjunct to the subject which consists of an adjective or noun in apposition, when these are accompanied by other words standing to them in the attributive, objective, or adverbial relation. *E.g.*, "Bacon, the illustrious author of the 'Novum Organum,' declared," &c. "The soldier, afraid of the consequences of his insubordination, deserted."

4. Before or after a phrase or quotation which is either the subject or the object of a verb. Thus: "Nelson's watchword was, 'England expects every man to do his duty.'" "He said to his disciples, 'Watch and pray'" (See § 567.)

5. When several substantives, enumerated successively without having the conjunction *and* placed between them, have the same relation to some other word in the sentence, forming either the compound subject or the compound object of a verb, or coming after a preposition, they must be separated by commas. Thus: "John, William, James, and Henry took a walk together." "He lost lands, money, reputation and friends." Adjectives and adverbs co-ordinately related to the same noun, or to the same verb or adjective, and not connected by *and*, should be separated by commas; as: "He was a wealthy, prudent, active and philanthropic citizen." "He wrote his exercise neatly, quickly and correctly."

6. A comma is inserted after an adverbial phrase consisting of a noun (with its adjuncts) used absolutely, or an infinitive mood (preceded by *to*) implying purpose, when it precedes the verb or its subject. As, "To conclude, I will only say," &c. "The man being dead, his heirs took possession of his estate."

7. Other complex adverbial phrases also are frequently followed by commas when they precede the subject of the sentence; as, "By studying diligently for five hours a day, he mastered the language in six months." Such phrases should be both preceded and followed by commas when they come between the subject and the verb, and modify not the verb simply, but the entire assertion; as, "The foolish man, in defiance of all advice, persisted in his project." "This undertaking, therefore, was abandoned." But a single adverb or a short adverbial phrase which simply modifies the verb need not be thus marked off; as, "The man in vain protested his innocence." *However*, when it is the representative of an elliptical clause, must be preceded and followed by commas; as, "The man, however, escaped."

8. Nouns used in the vocative (or nominative of appellation) are separated by commas from the rest of the sentence; as, "John, shut the door," "I said, Sir, that I had not done that."

570. In complex sentences the following rules may be observed:—

1. A substantive clause used as the subject of a verb should be followed by a comma. Thus: "That the accused is innocent of the crime imputed to him, admits of demonstration" "How we are ever to get there, is the question."

If such a clause *follow* the verb, a comma does not usually precede the substantive clause. As, "It is of great importance that this should be rightly understood."

A substantive clause which is the object of a verb is not generally preceded by a comma. Thus: "He acknowledged that he had done this." "Tell me how you are."

2. An adjective clause is not separated by a comma from the noun which it qualifies when it is an essential part of the designation of the thing signified ; that is, when the thing or person signified is not sufficiently indicated by the antecedent noun. Thus : "The man who told me this stands here." "I do not see the objects that you are pointing out."

But if the designation of the person or thing meant is complete without the relative sentence, so that the latter only extends and defines that designation, being *continuative*, and not *restrictive* (§ 412), then a comma must be introduced. Thus : "We are studying the reign of William Rufus, who succeeded his father A.D. 1087." "I will report this to my father, who is waiting to hear the news."

Adverbial clauses which precede the verb that they modify should be marked off by commas. Thus : "When you have finished your work, tell me." "Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish." But an adverbial clause need not be preceded by a comma when it comes *after* the verb that it modifies ; as, "I will wait till I hear from you" ; "I did not see him when he called" ; "He ran away as soon as I saw him."

571. Besides the stops, some other signs are employed in writing.

572. A note of interrogation (?) must be placed at the end of all direct questions, but not after indirect questions. Thus : "Have you written your letter ?" But : "He asked me whether I had written my letter."

573. The note of admiration or exclamation (!) is placed after interjections, exclamations, and after nouns and pronouns used in addresses, when particular stress is to be laid upon them. This mark is also frequently placed at the end of a sentence which contains an invocation.

574. The parenthesis ( ) is used to enclose a clause, or part of a clause, which does not enter into the construction of the main sentence, but is merely introduced *by the way*. Words enclosed within a parenthesis do not require to be separated from the rest of the sentence by any other stop.

575. Double or single inverted commas '—' or "—", are used to mark quotations,

APPENDIX.

WORDS BELONGING TO THE TEUTONIC STOCK OF ENGLISH.

[*Nothing more is attempted here than a brief classification, with a few examples*].

A. ANGLO-SAXON CONSTITUENTS OF MODERN ENGLISH.

1. Words constituting the grammatical framework of the language. Most of these have been already discussed.

1. Pronouns (§§ 127, &c.).
2. Numerals (§§ 100, &c.).
3. Prepositions (§ 281).
4. Conjunctions (§§ 287, &c.).
5. Adjectives of irregular comparison (§ 114).
6. Auxiliary Verbs (§§ 231, &c.).
7. All verbs of the strong conjugation (§ 225), together with a large number of verbs of the weak conjugation (particularly those given in § 226).

2. The greater part of the words formed by Teutonic suffixes (§§ 311-325).

3. Most words denoting common natural objects and phenomena :—

ác ; oak.
æpl, æpel ; apple
æsc ; ash
æspen ; aspen
bitel ; beetle
bár ; boar
beofer ; beaver
beo, bio ; bee
birce ; birch
blæd (*branch*) ; blade
bóc ; beech
brid (*the young of an animal*) ; bird
bróc ; brook
clæg ; clay
clam (*mud*) ; clammy
coc ; cock
comb (*valley*) ; in names, as Alcomb, Compton
crán ; crane
cú ; cow
dæg ; day
denu (*valley*) ; den (*in names, as Tenterden*)
deór (*animal*) ; deer
eá (*water*) ; island (*i.e.* eáland)
efen ; evening
eorðe ; earth
fæðer ; feather
fisc ; fish
flód ; flood
frosc ; frog
fugel (*bird*) ; fowl
gós ; goose
hæð ; heath
hafoc ; hawk
hagol ; hail
hors ; horse
hund ; hound
lencten (*the spring*) ; Lent
leoht ; light
móna ; moon
regen ; rain
sæ ; sea
snaw ; snow
spearwa ; sparrow
stán ; stone
sumer ; summer
sunne (*fem.*) ; sun
treow ; tree
wæter ; water
woruld ; world
þunor ; thunder

4. Words relating to the house and farm.

a-bacan ; to bake
acer, æcer ; acre
aeg (*pl.* aegru) ; egg, eyry
bæð ; bath
bere ; barley
bere-ern (ern=*place*) ; barn
bin (*manger*) ; corn-bin
bórd ; board
bræc ; breeches
búan (*to till*) ; boor
buc ; buck-et
bulluca (*calf*) ; bullock
camb ; comb
ceaf ; chaff
cealf ; calf
cese, cyse ; cheese
cetel ; kettle
clucge (*bell*) ; clock
cnedan ; to knead
cóc ; cook
cod (bag) ; peascod
cradol ; cradle
croc (*pot*) ; crock-ery
cwearn (*mill*) ; quern
delfan (*dig*) ; to delve
dic ; dike, ditch
ealo ; ale
erian (*to plough*) ; to ear
fearh (*little pig*) ; farrow
feorm (*food*) ; farm
fóda ; food
furh ; furrow
fýr ; fire
gád ; goad
gærs ; grass
geard (*hedge*) ; yard, garden
grút (*meal*) ; groats, grouts
hærfest ; harvest
heorð ; hearth
hlâf ; loaf
hóf (*house*) ; hovel
hriddel (*sieve*) ; to riddle
hróf ; roof
hús ; house
hwǽte ; wheat
hweol ; wheel
meolc ; milk
ófen ; oven
ortgeard (*yard for worts or vegetables*) ; orchard
oxa ; ox
rip (*harvest*) ; reap
sceâp ; sheep
wǽgen ; wagon, wain
wudu ; wood
þæc ; thatch
þerscan ; to thresh

5. Words relating to family and kindred.

bróðor ; brother
bryd ; bride
cild (*pl.* cildra) ; child
cnápa, cnáfa (*boy*) ; knave
cyn ; kin
dóhtor ; daughter
fæder ; father
husbonda (*householder*) ; husband
módor ; mother
nefa ; nephew
widuwa ; widower
widuwe ; widow
wíf (*woman*) ; wife

6. Words relating to the parts of the body and natural functions.

ncleow ; ankle
ælg (*bag*) ; belly, bulge, bellows
bán ; bone
blód ; blood
bodig (*stature*) ; body
bosm (*fold*) ; bosom
bræð ; breath
breost ; breast
ceaca ; cheek
ceówan ; to chew
cin ; chin
cneow ; knee
eáge ; eye
eár ; ear
earm ; arm
elboga ; elbow
finger ; finger
flǽsc ; flesh
fót ; foot
fýst ; fist
gesiht ; sight
góma ; gum
hǽr ; hair
hand ; hand
heáfod ; head
heals (*neck*) ; halter
hél ; heel
heorte ; heart
hlist (*the sense of hearing*) ; listen
hoh (*heel*) ; hough
hricg (*back*) ; ridge
hrif (*bowels*) ; midriff
lim ; limb
lippe ; lip
maga (*stomach*) ; maw
mearg ; marrow
múð ; mouth
nægl ; nail
nasu ; nose
sculder ; shoulder
seón ; to see
toð ; tooth
tunge ; tongue
þeoh ; thigh, thews
þróte ; throat

7. Words denoting common attributive ideas.

blæc ; black
blác (*pale*) ; bleach
bleo ; blue
brád ; broad
brún ; brown
ceald ; cold
dearc ; dark
deóp ; deep
eald ; old
fægr ; fair
fætt ; fat
fúl ; foul
geolo ; yellow
god ; good
græg ; grey
gréne ; green
hal ; hale, whole
heáh ; high
heard ; hard
hefig ; heavy
hwæt (*sharp*) ; to whet
hwít ; white
leof (*dear*) ; lief
rud (red) ; ruddy, ruddle, ruddock (*the robin-red-breast*)

8. Words relating to common actions and things :—

acsian ; to ask
áth ; oath
beatan ; to beat
beódan ; to bid
beorgan (*to protect*) ; burrow
béran ; to bear
berstan ; to burst
biddan ; to bid
bítan ; to bite
blæsan (*to blow*) ; blast
blédan ; to bleed
brecan ; to break
bot (*remedy*) ; to boot
brucan (*to use*) ; to brook
bugan (*to bend*) ; bough, elbow
bur (*dwelling*) ; bower
burh (*fort*) ; borough
ceap (*bargain*) ; chapman, cheapside
ceorl ; churl
ceorfan (*to cut*) ; carve
ceósan ; to choose
clypian ; to call, *yclept*
cnapa (*boy*) ; knave
creópan ; to creep
cuman ; to come
cunnan (*to know, to be able*)
cwen (*woman*) ; queen, quean
cwysan ; (s)quash
cwelian, cwellan ; to kill, to quell
cweðan ; to say (*quoth*)
dæl (*part*) ; deal, dole
dón ; to do
drædan ; to dread
drencan ; to drench
dreógan (*to work*) ; drudge
drigan ; to dry (*drought, drug*)
drincan ; to drink
dwinan (*to pine*) ; dwindle
dyppan ; to dip
eorl ; earl
etan ; to eat
faran (*to go*) ; fare
fadian (*set in order*) ; fiddle-faddle
feallan ; to fall
fédan ; to feed
félan ; to feel
feoh (*cattle*) ; fee
fleógan ; to fly
folgian *or* fyligean ; to follow
fretan (*gnaw*) ; fret
galan (*to sing*) ; nightingale
gar (*dart*) to gore
gerefa (*companion*) ; reeve, sheriff (-shire-reeve)
gifan ; to give
gitan ; to get
grafan (*to dig*) ; engrave
habban ; to have
ham (*dwelling*) ; home
helan (*to hide*) ; hole, hell
hýran ; to hear
hweorfan (*to turn*) ; warp
lár ; lore
leod (*people*) ; lewd
lic (*corpse*) ; lychgate
luf ; love
sciran ; to shear
scufan : to shove, scuffle
snican (*to creep*) ; sneak, snake
soð (*truth*) ; sooth
sorh ; sorrow
sped (*success*) ; speed
sprécan ; to speak
steopan (*bereave*) ; stepson
wed (*pledge*) ; wed-lock
wop (*weeping*) ; whoop
wæscan ; to wash
wealcan (*to roll*) ; walk
weorpan (*to throw*) ; mould-warp
yrnan ; to run

[For fuller lists the reader is referred to the author's larger grammar.]

B. SCANDINAVIAN WORDS AND ELEMENTS IN ENGLISH.

Some of the most important of these are found in some geographical names :—

ark, argh (temple or altar) — Arkholm, Grimsargh
beck (brook), Caldbeck
by (town), Whitby
dal (valley), Dalby
ey, a (island) — Orkney, Grimsa
fell (rocky hill), Scawfeil
ford, forth, firth (inlet) — Seaford, Seaforth, Holmforth
force (waterfall), Mickleforce
garth, guard (enclosure) — Dalegarth, Fishguard
gill (valley), Ormesgill
holm (island), Langholm
ness (headland), Skipness
scar (steep rock), Scarborough
skip (ship), Skipwith
thing, ting, ding (place of meeting) — Thingwall, Tingwall, Dingwall
thorp, throp (village) — Grimsthorpe, Milnthrop
toft (small field), Lowestoft
with (wood), Langwith

A LIST OF SOME CELTIC WORDS PRESERVED IN ENGLISH.

bag	crock-ery	gown	lath	rug
bard	crag	griddle	mattock	size
basket	crowd (fiddle)	gruel	mesh	smooth
barrow	cudgel	grumble	mop	soak
bog	dainty	gyve	muggy	solder
bran	darn	hawker	pail	tackle
bump	flannel	hem	pan	tall
button	fleam	hog	peck	tinker
bug-bear	flaw	knell	pitcher	trudge
cabin	funnel	knock	rail	welt
clout	fur	knoll	rasher	whip
coble	glen	lad	ridge	wicket
cock-boat	goblin	lass	rim	wire

The following geographical names are of Celtic origin :—*Rivers :*—Avon, Dee, Don, Ouse, Severn, Stour, Thames, Trent. *Hills :*—Cheviot, Chiltern, Grampian, Malvern, Mendip. *Islands :*—Arran, Bute, Man, Mull, Wight. *Counties :*—Devon, Dorset, Kent. *Towns :*—Liverpool, Penrith, Penzance.

The following Celtic elements are found in some geographical names : —*Aber* (mouth of a river), as, 'Aberdeen, Aber-brothwick, Aberwick (Berwick);' *Auchin* (field), as 'Auchindoir, Auchinleck ;' *Ard* or *Aird* (high, projecting), as, 'Ardnamuchan, Ardrishaig ;' *Bal* (village). as, 'Balmoral ;' *Ben* or *Pen* (mountain), as, 'Ben Nevis, Penmaenmawr ;' *Blair* (field clear of wood), as, 'Blair Athol ;' *Brae* (rough ground), as, 'Braemar ;' *Caer* (fort), as, 'Caerleon (Carlisle) ; *Combe* or *Comp* (valley), as, 'Compton, Ilfracombe, Appuldurcombe ;' *Dun* (hill), as, 'the Downs, Dumbarton ;' *Inch* (island), as, 'Inchkeith, Inchcape ;' *Inver* (mouth of a river), as Inverness, Inverary ;' *Kill* (cell, chapel), 'Kilmarnock ;' *Lin* (deep pool), 'Linlithgow, King's Lynn ;' *Llan* (church), 'Llandaff, Launceston ;' *Tre* (town), 'Coventry (town of the convent), Oswestry ;' *Strath* (broad valley), 'Strathfieldsaye.'

THE CLASSICAL ELEMENT IN ENGLISH.

The greater part of the abstract terms in English, and words relating to religion, law, science, and literature, are of Latin or Greek origin. Most words of three or more syllables are of classical origin, and a very large number of those of two syllables, the exceptions being mostly words formed by *English* suffixes from monosyllabic roots. Most monosyllabic words in English are of Teutonic origin, but many are derived from Latin and Greek, the greater part having come to us through French. The following* belong to this class :—

ace (*as*)
age (*aetaticum*),
Old Fr. édage
aid (adjutum)
aim (aestimare)
alms (ελεημοσυνη)
arch (arcus)
aunt (amita)
balm (balsamum)
base (bassus)
beast (bestia)
beef (boves)
blame (blasphemia)
boil (bullire)
boon (bonus)
brace (brachium)
brief (brevis)
bull (bulla)
cage† (cavea)
car, carry, charge (carrus)
cape (caput)
cash (capsa)
chafe (calefacere)
chain (catena)
chalk (calx)
chair (cathedra)
chance (*cadentia*)
charm (carmen)
chase (*captiare*)
chief (caput)
coin (cuneus)
couch (collocare)
count (comes)
count (computare)
cork (cortex)
cost (constare)
coy (quietus)
cue (cauda)
cull (colligere)
dame (domina)
daunt (*domitare*)

dean (decanus)
desk, dish (discus)
dose (δοσις)
doubt (dubitare)
dress (dirigere)
due (debitum)
duke (dux)
fair (feria)
faith (fides)
fay (fata)
feat (factum)
feign (fingere)
fierce (ferus)
foil (folium)
force (fortis)
forge (fabrica)
found (fundere)
fount (fons)
frail (fragilis)
frown (frons)
fruit (fructus)
fry (frigere)
glaive (gladius)
gourd (cucurbita)
grant (*credentare*)
grease (crassus)
grief (gravis)
host (hospit-)
hulk (ὁλκας)
inch (uncia)
jaw (gabata)
jest (gestum)
jet (jactum)
join (jungo)
joy (gaudium)
lace (laqueus)
lease (laxare)
liege (*legius*)
lounge (longus)
mace (massa)
mail, *armour* (macula, *mesh*)

male (masculus)
mount (mons)
niece (neptis)
noise (noxia)
nurse (nutrix)
ounce (uncia)
pace (passus)
paint (pingere)
pair (par)
pay (pacare)
peace (pax)
peach (persica)
place (platea)
plait (plectere)
plea, plead (placitum)
plum (prunum)
plunge (*plumbicare*)
point (punctum)
poor (pauper)
praise (pretiare)
pray (precari)
preach (prædicare)
pray (præda)
priest (presbyter)
print (primere)
prize, price (pretium)
proof (probare)
push (pulsare)
quire (chorus)
quite (quietus)
rage, rave (rabies)
ray (radius)
rear (retro)
rill (rivulus)
river (riparius)
roll (rotulus)
round (rotundus)
rule (regula)
safe (salvus)
sage (sapiens)

sauce (salsus)
scarce (*ex-scarptus*)
scourge(ex-corrigere)
seal (sigillum)
search (*circare*)
seat (sedes)
short (curtus)
siege (assedium)
sir (senior)
sluice (exclusis)
soar (*exaurare*)
source (surgere)
spice (species)
spouse (sponsus)
sprain (exprimo)
spy (specio)
squad, square (*exquadrare*)
stage (*staticus*)
strain (stringo)
strange (extraneus)
strait (strictus)
street (strata)
sue, suit (sequor)
sure (securus)
taint (tinctus)
task (taxare)
taste (*taxitare*)
taunt (temptare)
tense (tempus)
tour, turn (tornare)
trace, trait (tractus)
treat (tractare)
vaunt (*vanitare*)
veal (vitulus)
view (videre)
void (viduus)
vouch (vocare)
vow (votum)
waste (vastus)

The above list does not include a large number of monosyllables, the Latin origin of which is obvious, such as *cede* (*cedo*), *long* (*longus*).

* For a fuller list see the author's larger grammar.

† Note the curious change of **b**, **p**, or **v**, between vowels into **soft g**.

GRIMM'S LAW.

Besides words like the foregoing, which with many others have been distinctly *imported* from the classical languages into English, there are numerous instances in which a word or root is common to several of the Aryan languages, without having been borrowed by any one from another, all having received the word in common from some more primitive source. In tracing the variations which such words assume, a very remarkable relation between the consonants is found, which is commonly known as 'Grimm's Law.'

If the same roots or the same words exist (1) in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, &c., (2) in Gothic or the Low German dialects, and (3) in Old High German, then I. When the first class have an aspirate the second have the corresponding soft check (*i.e. flat* or *middle* mute), the third the corresponding hard check *i.e., sharp* or *thin* mute). II. When the first class have a soft check (*flat* or *middle* mute), we find the corresponding hard check (*sharp* or *thin* mute) in the second class, and the corresponding aspirate in the third. III. When the first class have a hard consonant (*sharp* or *thin* mute), the second have the aspirate, and the third the soft check (*flat* or *middle* mute). In this third section of the rule, however, the law holds good for Old High German only as regards the *dental* series of mutes, the middle (or flat) guttural being generally replaced by *h*, and the middle (or flat) labial by *f*.*

The three branches of the law given above may be easily remembered in the following way :—Take a circular disc of cardboard, and mark on it three radii, inclined each to each at an angle of 120°. Mark these three radii (1), (2), and (3), corresponding respectively to the three classes of languages above referred to—(1) denoting Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, &c. ; (2) denoting Gothic and Low German dialects (including English) ; and (3) denoting Old High German. Place the disc on a sheet of paper, and write *Aspirate* opposite the end of radius (1), *Middle* or *Flat* opposite the end of radius (2), and *Thin* or *Sharp* opposite the end of radius (3). The disc may be shifted, so that radius (1), instead of pointing to *Aspirate*, may point to the other two classes of mutes in succession. In each position of the disc, each radius will point to the class of mutes that may be expected to characterize any word that is common to all three classes of languages, provided that one radius points to the class of mutes which the word in question exhibits in that group of languages which that radius represents.

The following are a few instances of the application of this law :—

I.

	Greek.	*Latin.*	*Sanskrit.*	*English. (Ang. Sax.)*	*Gothic.*	*Old High German.*
1.	χήν	(h)anser	hansa	goose	gans	kans
	χθές	heri	hyas	gestrandaeg	gistra	kestar
	χόρτος	hortus		garden	gards	karto
2.	θυγάτηρ			daughter	daughtar	tohtar
	θύρα			door	daur	tor
	θήρ	fera		deer	dius	tior
	θαρσεῖν		dhrish	dare	ga-daur-san	tarran
		medius	madhya	middle		mitte
3.	φέρω	fero	bhri	bear	baira	piru
	(φράτρα)	frater	bhratri	brother	brôthar	pruoder
	φηγός	fagus		beech	bôka	puocha
	φύω	fu-i	bhavâmi	be (be om)		pim

* The above is the law in its general form. It is subject to special modifications and exceptions.

II.

	Greek.	*Latin.*	*Sanskrit*	*English (Ang. Sax.)*	*Gothic.*	*Old High German.*
4.	γνῶμι	gnosco	jnâ	know	kan	chan
	γένος	genus	jâti	kin	kuni	chuni
	γόνυ	genu	jânu	knee	kniu	chniu
	μέγας	mag-nus	mah-at	A.S. micel	mih-ils	mih-il
	ἐγώ	ego		A.S. ic	ik	ih (G. ich)
5.	ποδ-ός	ped-is		foot		vuoz
	δεκα	decem	dasan	ten	taihun	zehan
	δύω	duo		two	twai	zwei
	οδόντ-ος	dent-is	dant-as	tooth	tunth	
6.	κάνναβις			help hemp	hilfa	hilfu hanaf

III.

7.	κεφαλή	caput	kapâla	A.S. heafod	haubith	houpit
	καρδία	cord-is	hridaya	heart	hairto	(herza)
	(κός)	qui-s		A.S. hwa	hvas	
8.	τύ	tu	twam	thou	thu	du
	τρεῖς	tres	trayas	three	threis	dri
	ἕτ-ερ-ος	alter	ant-ara	other	anthar	andar
9.	πατήρ	pater	pitri	father	fadar	
	ὑπέρ	super	upari	over	ufar	ubar
	πλέος	ple-nus	pûrna	full	fulls	
		piscis		fish	fisks	
		pellis		fell		

General Table of Grimm's Law.

		I.			II.			III.		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I.	Sanskrit ...	*gh (h)*	*dh (h)*	*bh (h)*	*g*	*d*	*b*	*k*	*t*	*p*
	Greek	χ	θ	φ	γ	δ	β	κ	τ	π
	Latin	*h, f (g, v)*	*f (d, b)*	*f (b)*	*g*	*d*	*b*	*c, qu*	*t*	*p*
II.	Gothic, &c.	*g*	*d*	*b*	*k*	*t*	*(p)*	*h, g, (f)*	*th, d*	*f, b*
III.	O. H. Ger.	*k*	*t*	*p*	*ch*	*z*	*ph (f)*	*h, g, k*	*d*	*f, v*

A List of the principal Latin Words from which Derivatives are formed in English.*

Acer (*sharp*), acidus (*sour*), acerbus (*bitter*); acrid, acerbity, acrimony, acid.
Acuo (*I sharpen*); acute, acumen.
Aedes (*house*); edifice, edify.
Aequus (*level*); equal, equation, adequate, equity, equivocate, equinox.
Aestimo (*I value*); estimate, esteem, aim.
Aestus (*tide*); estuary.
Aeternus (*of endless duration*); eternity.
Aevum (*age*); coeval, primeval.
Ager (*field*); agriculture, agrarian.
Agger (*heap*); exaggerate.
Ago (*I set in motion, drive, do*); agent, act, agile, agitate.
Alacer (*brisk*); alacrity.
Alius (*other*), alter (*other of two*); alien, alter, alternate.
Alo (*I nourish*); alimony, aliment.
Altus (*high, deep*); altitude, exalt.
Ambitio (*courting favour*); ambition.
Ambulo (*I walk*); amble, somnambulist,
Amo (*I love*), amicus (*friend*), amor (*love*); amour, amorous, amicable, amiable.
Amoenus (*pleasant*); amenity.
Amplus (*large*); ample, amplify.
Ango (*I choke*); anxius, anxious, anxiety, anguish, anger.
Angulus (*corner, bend*); angle
Anima (*breath*), animus (*mind*); animate, animal, magnanimous.
Annulus (*ring*); annular.
Annus (*year*); annual, anniversary.
Anus (*old woman*); anile.
Aperio (*I open*); April, aperient.
Apis (*bee*); apiary.
Appello (*I call*); appellation, appeal.
Aptus (*fitted*); apto (*I fit*); adapt, apt.
Aqua (*water*); aqueous, aqueduct.
Arbiter (*umpire*); arbitrate.
Arbor (*tree*); arbour.
Arcus (*bow*); arc, arch.
Ardeo (*I burn*); ardent, arson.
Arduus (*steep*); arduous.
Arguo (*I prove*); argue, argument.
Aridus (*dry*); arid, aridity.
Arma (*fittings*); arms, armour.
Aro (*I plough*); arable.
Ars (*skill*); art, artist, artifice.
Artus (*joint*), articulus (*little joint or fastening*); articulate, article.
Asinus (*ass*); asinine.
Asper (*rough*); exasperate.
Audax (*bold*); audacious, audacity.
Audio (*I hear*); audience, audible.
Augeo (*I increase*); auction, author.
Auris (*ear*); aurist, auricular.
Aurum (*gold*); auriferous.
Auspex (*one who takes omens from birds*); auspicious.
Auxilium (*help*); auxiliary.

Avarus (*greedy*); avarice, avaricious.
Avidus (*eager*); avidity.
Avis (*bird*); aviary.
Barba (*beard*); barb, barber.
Beatus (*blessed*); beatitude.
Bellum (*war*); belligerent, rebel.
Bene (*well*); benediction, benefit.
Benignus (*kind*); benign.
Bestia (*beast*); beast, bestial.
Bini (*two by two*); binary, combine.
Bis (*twice*); bissextile, bisect.
Brevis (*short*); brief, brevity.
Caballus (*horse*); cavalry.
Cado, *sup.* casum (*I fall*); cadence, ac-cident, oc-casion, casual.
Caedo, caesum (*I cut*); suicide, incision, concise.
Calculus (*pebble*); calculate.
Calx; chalk, calcine.
Callus (*hard skin*) callosus: callous.
Campus (*plain*); camp, encamp.
Candeo (*I burn or shine*), candidus (*white*); candid, incendiary, candle, candour.
Canis (*dog*); canine.
Canna (*reed*); canal, channel.
Canto (*I sing*); chant, incantation.
Capillus (*hair*); capillary.
Capio (*I take*), captus (*taken*); captive, capacity, accept, recipient.
Caput (*head*); cape, capital, captain, chapter, precipitate.
Carbo (*coal*); carbon; carboniferous.
Carcer (*prison*); incarcerate.
Cardo (*hinge*); cardinal.
Carmen (*song*); charm.
Caro, carnis (*flesh*); carnal, incarnate, charnel-house, carnival.
Carus (*dear*); charity.
Castigo (*restrain*); castigate, chastise.
Castus (*pure*); chaste.
Casus (*falling*); case, casual.
Causa; cause; excuse, accuse.
Caveo (*I take care*); caution.
Cavus (*hollow*); cave, excavate.
Cedo (*I go*); cede, precede, cession.
Celeber (*frequented*); celebrate.
Celer (*quick*); celerity.
Celo (*I hide*); conceal.
Censeo (*I judge*); censor, censure.
Centum (*hundred*); cent, century.
Centrum; centre, concentrate.
Cerno, cretum (*I distinguish*); discern, discreet, secret.
Certus (*resolved*); certain, certify.
Cesso (*I loiter*); cease, cessation.
Charta (*paper*); chart, charter, cartoon.
Cingo (*I gird*); cincture, succinct.
Circum (*round*), circus (*a circle*); circle, circulate, circuit.
Cito (*I rouse*); citation, excite.

* In most cases only a few samples of the English derivatives are given.

Civis (*citizen*); civil, civic, city.
Clamo (*I shout*); claim, clamour.
Clarus (*bright*); clear, clarify.
Classis; class, classic.
Claudo (*I shut*); close, exclude.
Clemens (*mild*); clemency, inclement.
Clino (*I bend*); incline, declension.
Clivus (*sloping ground*); declivity.
Coelebs (*bachelor*); celibacy.
Coelum (*heaven*); celestial.
Cogito (*I think*); cogitate.
Cognosco (*I examine*); recognize.
Colo (*I till*); culture, cultivate, colony.
Color; colour.
Comes (*companion*); concomitant, count.
Commodus (*convenient*); commodious.
Communis; common, community.
Contra (*against*); counter, contrary.
Copia (*plenty*); copious.
Copulo (*I join together*); copulative.
Coquo (*I boil*); cook, decoction.
Cor, cordis, (*heart*); cordial, concord.
Corona; crown, coronation.
Corpus (*body*); corps, corpse, incorporate, corporeal, corpulent.
Cras (*to-morrow*); procrastinate.
Credo (*I believe*); creed, incredible, credit.
Creo; create.
Cresco (*I grow*); increase, crescent.
Crimen (*charge*); crime, criminal.
Crudus (*raw*). crudelis; cruel, crude.
Crux (*cross*); crusade, crucify.
Cubo, cumbo (*I lie*); succumb, recumbent.
Cubitus (*a bend, elbow*); cubit.
Culpa (*fault*); inculpate, culpable.
Cumulus (*heap*); accumulate.
Cupidus (*eager*); cupid, cupidity.
Cura (*care*); cure, curious, procure.
Curro, cursum (*I run*); concur, discursive, current, course.
Curvus (*bent*); curve.
Custodia (*guard*); custody.
Damno; damn, condemn.
Debeo, debitum (*I owe*); debt, debit.
Debilis (*weak*); debility.
Decem (*ten*); December, decimal.
Decens (*becoming*); decent, decorous.
Densus; dense, condense.
Dens (*tooth*); dentist, trident, indent.
Desidero (*I long for*); desire, desiderate.
Deus (*God*); deity, deify, deodand.
Dexter (*right*); dexterity.
Dico, dictum (*I say*); contradict, predict, diction, dictate.
Dies (*day*); diary, diurnal.
Digitus (*finger*); digit, digital.
Dignus (*worthy*); condign, dignity, deign.
Disco (*I learn*); disciple, discipline.
Divido; divide, division.
Divinus; divine, divination.
Do, datum (*I give*); dative, add, date.
Doceo (*I teach*); docile, doctor.
Dolor (*grief*), doleo (*I grieve*); dolorous, condole.
Domo (*I tame*); indomitable.
Domus (*house*); domestic, dome.
Dominus (*master*); dominate, domain.
Dono (*I present*); donation, condone.
Dormio (*I sleep*); dormant, dormitory.
Dubius (*doubtful*); doubt, dubious.
Duco, ductum (*I lead*), dux; conduct, duke, adduce.
Duo (*two*); dual, duet, duel.
Durus (*hard*); endure, durable.
Ebrius (*drunken*); ebriety, inebriate.
Edo (*I eat*); edible.
Ego (*I*); egotist.
Emo (*I buy*); redeem, exempt.
Eo, ivi, itum (*I go*); exit, initial.
Equus (*horse*), eques (*horseman*); equine, equerry, equitation.
Erro (*I wander*); err, error, erroneous, erratic, aberration.
Examino (*I weigh*); examine.
Exemplum; example, sample.
Exerceo; exercise.
Expedio (*I set free*); expedite, expedient.
Experior (*I try*); expert, experience.
Faber (*mechanic, engineer*); fabric.
Fabula (*little story*); fable, fabulous.
Facies (*make*); face, superficial.
Facilis (*easy*); facile, difficulty.
Facio (*I make, do*); fact, faction, affect, deficient, benefactor, perfect, feat.
Fallo (*I deceive*); false, fallible.
Fama (*report*); fame, infamous.
Familia; family, familiar.
Fans (*speaking*), fatum (*what is spoken*); infant, fate, fatal.
Fanum (*temple*); fane, profane.
Faveo; favour.
Febris; fever, febrile.
Felis (*cat*); feline.
Felix (*happy*); felicity
Femina (*woman*); feminine, effeminate.
Fendo (*I strike*); defend, fence.
Fero (*I bear*); fertile, infer; *part.* latus; dilate, translate.
Ferox; ferocious, ferocity.
Ferrum (*iron*); ferruginous.
Ferveo (*I boil*); fervent, fervid.
Festus (*solemn*); festive, feast.
Fides (*faith*), fido (*I trust*); fidelity, confide, perfidy, defy.
Figo, fixum (*I fasten*); fix, crucifix.
Filius (*son*); filial, affiliate.
Findo, fissum (*I cleave*); fissure.
Fingo (*I shape*); fiction, figure, feign.
Finis (*end*); final, confine, infinitive.
Firmus; firm, confirm, affirm.
Fiscus (*treasury*); fiscal, confiscate.
Flagro (*I burn*); flagrant.
Flamma; flame, inflammation.
Flo, flatum (*I blow*); inflate, flatulent.
Flecto (*I bend*); deflect, flexible.
Fligo (*I strike*); afflict, profligate.
Flos (*flower*); florid, flourish.
Fluo, fluxum (*I flow*), fluctus (*wave*); flux, influence, fluid.
Fodio, fossum (*I dig*); fosse, fossil.
Folium (*leaf*); foliage, trefoil.
Fons; fount, fountain.
Forma; form, reform, inform.
Formido (*fear*); formidable.
Fors, fortuna; fortune.
Fortis (*strong*); fortify, fortress.

Frango, fractum (*I break*); fragile, frail, infringe, infraction, fragment, fracture.
Frater (*brother*); fraternal, fratricide.
Fraus, fraudis; fraud.
Frigus (*cold*); frigid, refrigerate.
Frons; front, affront, frontispiece.
Fructus (*fruit*), fruor (*I enjoy*); fruit, fructify, fruition, frugal.
Frustra (*in vain*); frustrate.
Fugio (*I flee*); fugitive, refuge.
Fulgeo (*I lighten*); refulgent.
Fulmen (*thunderbolt*); fulminate.
Fumus (*smoke*); fumigate, fume.
Fundo (*I pour*); foundry, refund, confound, confuse.
Fundus (*bottom*); found, foundation.
Fungor (*I discharge*); function.
Funus; funeral.
Fur (*thief*); furtive.
Gelu (*ice*); gelid, congeal, jelly.
Gens (*race*), gigno (*root* gen-), *I beget*; genus (*kind*); gentile, generate, gender, degenerate, general, gentle.
Gero, gestum (*I bear*); gesture, suggest, belligerent.
Glacies (*ice*); glass, glacial, glazier.
Gloria; glory.
Gradus (*step*), gradior (*I walk*); grade, digression, transgress, aggression.
Grandis (*large*); grand, aggrandize.
Gratia; grace, gratuitous, gratis.
Gratus; grateful, gratitude.
Gravis (*heavy*); grave, grief.
Grex (*flock*); gregarious, congregate.
Guberno (*I pilot*); govern.
Habeo (*I have*); have, habit, prohibit.
Habito (*dwell*); habitation, inhabit.
Haereo (*I stick*); adhere, hesitate.
Haeres (*heir*); inherit, hereditary.
Halo (*I breathe*); exhale, inhale.
Haurio, haustum (*I draw*); exhaust.
Herba; herb, herbaceous.
Hibernus (*wintry*); hibernate.
Homo (*man*); human, homicide.
Honestus; honest.
Honor; honour, honorary.
Horreo (*I shudder*); horror, horrid, abhor.
Hortor; exhort.
Hortus (*garden*); horticulture.
Hospes (*guest*); hospitable, host.
Hostis (*enemy*); hostile.
Humeo (*I am wet*); humid, humour.
Humus (*ground*); exhume, humble.
Ignis (*fire*); ignite, igneous.
Ignoro; ignore, ignorant.
Imago; image, imagine.
Impero (*I command*); empire, imperious, imperative.
Indico (*I point*); indicate.
Inferus (*low*); inferior, infernal.
Ingenium (*talent*); ingenious.
Ingenuus (*native*); ingenuity.
Insula (*island*); insulate.
Integer (*whole*); integral, integrity.
Intelligo (*I perceive*); intelligent, intellect.
Invito; invite.
Ira (*anger*); ire, irate, irascible.
Irrito (*I provoke*); irritate.
Iterum (*again*); reiterate.
Iter, itineris (*journey*); itinerant.
Jaceo (*I lie down*); adjacent.
Jacio, jactum (*I throw*); eject, object, adjective, conjecture.
Jocus; joke, jocular.
Judex; judge, judicious, prejudice.
Jugum (*yoke*); conjugal, conjugate.
Jungo, junctum; join, joint, juncture, conjunction, injunction.
Juro (*I swear*); conjure, jury, perjury.
Jus (*justice*), justus (*just*); just, injury, jurisdiction.
Juvenis (*young*); juvenile, junior.
Labor; labour, laboratory.
Labor (*I slide*); lapse, collapse.
Lac (*milk*); lacteal, lactic.
Laedo, laesum (*I dash* or *hurt*); lesion, elide, collision.
Lapis (*stone*); lapidary, dilapidate.
Latus (*broad*); latitude.
Latus (*side*); lateral, equilateral.
Laus, laudis (*praise*); laud, laudable.
Lavo (*I wash*); lavatory, lave.
Laxus (*loose*); lax, relax.
Lego (*I depute*); legate, legacy.
Lego, lectum (*I gather*); collect, elect, lecture, college, legion.
Levis (*light*), levo (*I lift*); levity, alleviate, relieve, elevate.
Lex, legis (*law*); legal, legislate.
Liber (*free*); liberal, deliver.
Liber (*book*); library, libel.
Licet (*it is lawful*); licence, illicit.
Ligo (*I tie*); oblige, religion, league.
Limes (*boundary*); limit.
Linea; line, lineal.
Lingua (*tongue*); linguist, language.
Linquo, lictum (*I leave*); relinquish, relict.
Liquor, liquidus; liquid, liquefy.
Litera; letter, literal, illiterate.
Locus (*place*); locate, local, locomotion.
Longus; long, longitude, elongate.
Loquor (*I speak*), loquax; elocution, loquacious, colloquy, eloquent.
Lucrum (*gain*); lucrative, lucre.
Ludo, lusum (*I play*); elude, prelude, illusion, ludicrous.
Lumen (*light*); luminous, illuminate.
Luna (*moon*); lunar, lunatic.
Luo (*I wash*); dilute, ablution.
Lustrum (*purification*); lustre, illustrate.
Lux (*light*); lucid, elucidate.
Magister; magistrate, master.
Magnus (*great*), major (*greater*); magnitude, majesty, mayor.
Malus (*bad*); malice, maltreat, malady.
Mamma (*breast*); mamma, mammalia.
Mando (*commit, enjoin*); mandate, commend.
Maneo, mansum (*I remain*); mansion, remain, remnant, permanent.
Manus (*hand*); manual, manufactory, manuscript, maintain, manacle, emancipate, manumit.
Mare (*sea*); marine, mariner.
Mars; martial.
Mater (*mother*); maternal, matricide, matron, matrimony.

Materia (*timber, stuff*); matter, material.
Maturus (*ripe*); mature, premature.
Medeor (*I heal*); remedy, medicine.
Medius (*middle*); mediator, immediate.
Melior (*better*); ameliorate.
Memor (*mindful*), memini (*I remember*); remember, memory, commemorate.
Mendax (*lying*); mendacious.
Mendicus (*beggar*); mendicant.
Mendum (*fault*): mend, emendation.
Mens, mentis (*mind*); mental, vehement.
Mereo (*I deserve*); merit.
Mergo (*I plunge*); immerse emergency.
Merx (*wares*); merchant, market.
Metior, mensus sum (*I measure*); immense, mensuration, measure.
Miles (*soldier*); military, militate.
Mille (*thousand*): mile, million.
Minister (*servant*); minister, ministry.
Minor (*less*), minuo (*I lessen*); diminish, minority, minute.
Miror (*I admire*); admire, miracle.
Miscee, mixtum (*I mix*); miscellany, promiscuous.
Miser (*wretched*); miser, misery.
Mitto, missum (*I send*); admit, permit, promise, mission, missile.
Modus (*measure*); mode, mood, model, moderate, modest, modulation.
Mola; mill, meal, molar, immolate, emolument (*the miller's perquisite*).
Mollis (*soft*); emollient, mollify.
Moneo (*I warn*); admonish, monument, monster, monitor.
Mons; mount, mountain, surmount, promontory.
Monstro (*I show*); demonstrate.
Morbus (*disease*); morbific, morbid.
Mordeo, morsum (*I bite*); remorse, morsel.
Mors, mortis (*death*); mortal, mortuary.
Mos, moris (*custom*); moral.
Moveo, motum (*I move*), mobilis; move, motive, moment, mobility, emotion.
Multus (*many*); multitude, multiple.
Munio (*I fortify*); munition, muniment.
Munus (*gift, share*); remunerate, immunity.
Murus (*wall*); mural, intramural.
Musa (*muse*); music, amuse, museum.
Muto (*I change*); mutable, commute.
Narro; narrate, narrative.
Nascor, natus sum (*I am born*); nascent, native, nation, cognate, nature.
Navis (*ship*); naval, navigate, navy.
Nauta (*sailor*); nautical, nautilus.
Necto, nexum (*I tie*); connect, annex.
Nego (*I deny*); negation, renegade.
Negotium (*business*); negotiate.
Nervus (*string*); nerve, enervate.
Neuter (*not either*); neuter, neutral.
Niger (*black*); negro.
Nihil (*nothing*); annihilate.
Noceo (*I hurt*); innocent, noxious.
No-sco, notum (*I know*); no-men (*name*), nobilis (*noble*); noun, name, nominal, noble, ignominy, note, notion.
Non (*not*); non-entity, non-age.
Norma (*rule*); normal, enormous.
Novem (*nine*); November.
Novus (*new*); novel, renovate, novice.
Nox (*night*); nocturnal, equinox.
Nubo (*I marry*); nuptial, connubial.
Nudus (*naked*); nude, denude.
Nullus (*none*); nullity, annul.
Numerus (*number*); numeral, enumerate.
Nuntio; announce, renounce.
Nutrio (*I nourish*); nutritious.
Oblivio (from liv-idus); oblivion.
Occupo (*I lay hold of*); occupy, occupation.
Octo (*eight*); octave, October.
Oculus (*eye, bud*); ocular, oculist.
Odium (*hatred*); odious, odium.
Odor (*smell*); odour, odorous.
Officium (*duty*); office, officious.
Omen; ominous, abominate.
Omnis (*all*); omnipotent, omnibus.
Onus, oneris (*load*); onerous, exonerate.
Opinor (*I think*); opine, opinion.
Opto (*I desire*); option, adopt.
Opus, operis (*work*); operate.
Orbis (*circle*); orbit, exorbitant.
Ordo (*order*); ordain, ordinary.
Orior, ortus (*I rise*); origin, abortive.
Oro (*I speak*); orator, adore.
Os, oris (*mouth*); oral.
Osculor (*I kiss*); oscillate.
Ovum (*egg*); oviparous, oval.
Pagus (*village*); pagan, peasant.
Pallium (*cloak*); pall, palliate.
Palpo (*I stroke*); palpable, palpitate.
Palus (*stake*); pale, palisade, impale.
Pando, pansum and passum (*I spread*); expand, expanse, compass.
Par (*equal*); peer, compare.
Pareo (*I appear*); apparent.
Pario (*I bring forth*); parent, viviparous.
Paro (*I put, prepare*); repair, compare.
Pars (*part*); partition, party, particle, participle, parse, particular.
Pasco, pastum (*I feed*); pasture, pastor.
Pater (*father*); paternal, patron, patrimony, patrician.
Patria (*country*); patriot, expatriate.
Patior, passus (*I suffer*); patient, passion.
Pauper (*poor*); pauper, poverty.
Pax, pacis (*peace*): pacific.
Pectus (*breast*); pectoral, expectorate.
Pecunia (*money*); pecuniary.
Pello (*I drive*); compel, repulse, pulse.
Pendeo (*I hang*); pendo, pensum (*I hang* or *weigh*); depend, pension, recompense, perpendicular.
Penetro (*I pierce*); penetrate.
Perdo (*I lose*); perdition.
Persona (*mask*); person.
Pes, pedis (*foot*); pedal, pedestrian, impede, expedite, biped.
Pestis (*plague*); pest, pestilence.
Peto, petitum (*ask, seek*); petition, compete, repeat, appetite.
Pingo, pictum (*paint*); depict, picture.
Pilo (*I steal*); pillage, compile
Pius (*dutiful*); pious, piety, pity.
Placeo (*I please*); placid, pleasant.
Planta; plant, plantation.
Planus (*level*); plane plain.
Plaudo (*I clap*); applaud, plausible.

Plebs (*commonalty*); plebeian.
Plecto (*I weave*); complex, perplex.
Pleo (*I fill*); plenus (*full*); plenary, complete, replete, supply.
Plico (*I fold*); apply, comply, duplicity, double, complex, pliable.
Ploro (*I weep*); deplore, explore.
Plumbum (*lead*); plumber, plummet.
Plus, pluris (*more*); plural, surplus.
Pœna (*fine*), punio (*punish*); penal, punitive, repent, penance, penitent.
Polio; polish, polite.
Pondus (*weight*); pound, ponder.
Pono, positum (*I place*); deposit, compound, position. *Pose* from *pausare* (*Skeat, E. D.*).
Populus (*people*); popular, publish.
Porta (*door*); portal, portico, porthole.
Porto (*I carry*); export, important.
Portus (*harbour*); port.
Possum (*I can*); possible, potent.
Post (*after*); posterity
Præda (*plunder*); predatory, prey.
Precor (*I pray*); deprecate, precarious.
Prehendo (*I grasp*); apprehend, comprehend.
Premo, pressum (*I press*); express.
Primus (*first*); primeval, primrose.
Princeps (*prince*); principal.
Privo (*I deprive*); deprive, private.
Probo (*I make good*); prove, probable, reprobate.
Probus (*honest, good*); probity.
Prope (*near*), proximus (*nearest*); propinquity, proximate.
Proprius (*one's own*); property, propriety.
Pudor (*shame*), pudet; impudent.
Puer (*boy*); puerile.
Pugno (*I fight*); pugnacious, impugn.
Pungo, punctum (*I prick*); pungent, puncture, expunge, point.
Purgo (*I cleanse*); purge, purgatory.
Purus; pure, purify.
Puto (*I cut, calculate, think*); amputate, compute, count, depute.
Quæro, quæsitum (*I seek*); question, inquire, query, exquisite.
Qualis (*of which kind*); quality, qualify.
Quantus (*how great*); quantity
Quatio, quassum, cutio, cussum (*I shake*); quash, percussion, discuss.
Quartus (*fourth*), quadra (*square*); quart, quarter, quadrant, quadratic.
Queror (*I complain*); querulous.
Quies (*rest*); quiet, acquiesce.
Radius (*ray*); radius, radiate.
Radix (*root*); radical, eradicate.
Rado, rasum (*I scrape*); erase, razor.
Rapio (*I snatch*); rapid, rapture, rapine, rapacious, ravish, ravage.
Rarus (*thin*); rare, rarefy.
Ratio (*reckoning*); reason, rational.
Ratus (*reckoned*); ratify, rate.
Rego (*I make straight*); regular, direct, regent, regiment, rector, rectify.
Rex (*king*); regal, regicide.
Regnum; reign, regnant.
Repo (*I creep*); reptile, surreptitious.
Res (*thing*); real, republic.
Rideo, risum (*I laugh*); deride, risible.
Rigeo (*I am stiff*); rigid, rigour.
Ritus; rite, ritual.
Rivus (*brook*), rivalis (*having the same brook in common*); river, rival, derive, rivulet.
Robur (*oak, strength*); robust, corroborate.
Rodo, rosum (*I gnaw*); corrode, corrosion.
Rogo (*I ask*); arrogate, prorogue.
Rota (*wheel*); rotate, rotary.
Rotundus; round, rotund.
Rudis (*untaught*); rude, erudite.
Rumpo ruptum (*I break*); rupture, eruption, corrupt, bankrupt.
Ruo (*I rush*); ruin.
Rus, ruris (*country*); rustic, rural.
Sacer (*sacred*), sacerdos (*priest*); sacred, sacrifice, sacerdotal.
Sagax (*knowing*); sage, sagacious, presage.
Sal; salt, saline, salary.
Salio, saltum, sultum (*I leap*); salient, assail, assault, salmon (*the leaping fish*), insult.
Salus, salutis (*safety*); salute, salutary.
Salvus (*safe*); salvation, saviour.
Sanctus (*holy*); saint, sanctify.
Sanguis (*blood*); sanguinary.
Sano (*I make sound*); sanative, sanatory.
Sanus (*sound*); sane, sanity, sanitary.
Sapio (*I taste, am wise*), sapor (*taste*); savour, sapient, insipid.
Satis (*enough*), satur (*full*), satio (*I fill*); satiate, saturate, satisfy.
Scando (*I climb*); scan, ascend, descend.
Scindo, scissum (*I split*); rescind, scissors
Scio (*I know*); science, prescience, omniscience, conscious.
Scribo, scriptum (*I write*); scribe, describe, scripture, postscript.
Scrutor (*I examine*); scrutiny.
Seco, sectum (*I cut*); sect, section, dissect, segment, secant.
Sedeo, sessum (*I sit*), sido (*I set*); session, sedentary, sediment, possess, subside, assiduous, consider.
Senex (*old-man,*); senile, senate.
Sentio (*I feel, think*), sensus (*feeling*); scent, sentence, assent, sense.
Sepelio (*I bury*); sepulture, sepulchre.
Septem (*seven*); September, septennial.
Sequor, secutus (*I follow*), secundus (*following*); sequence, sequel, consequent, persecute, second.
Sero, sertum (*I set in a row*); insert, exert, desert, series, sermon.
Semen (*seed*); seminary, disseminate.
Servus (*slave*), servio (*I serve*), servo (*I watch or preserve*); serf, servile, servant, preserve, deserve.
Sidus (*star*); sidereal.
Signum; sign, signal, resign.
Sileo (*I am silent*); silent, silence.
Similis (*like*); similar, assimilate, resemble, simulate.
Singuli (*one by one*); single, singular.
Sisto (*I stop, I stand*); consist, insist.
Socius (*companion*); social, society.
Sol (*sun*); solar, solstice.
Solidus; solid, solder.
Solor; con-sole, solace.
Solus (*alone*); solitude, desolate.

Solvo, solutum (*I loosen*); solve, solution.
Sonus; sound, sonorous, consonant
Spargo, sparsum (*I strew*); sparse, disperse.
Spatium; space, spacious, expatiate.
Specio, spectum (*I look*), species (*appearance, kind*); special, respect, spectator, despise, suspicion.
Spero (*I hope*); despair, desperate.
Spiro (*I breathe*), spiritus (*breath*); spirit, aspire, conspire.
Splendeo (*I shine*); splendour, splendid.
Spondeo, sponsum (*I promise*); sponsor, respond, despond.
Sterno, stratum (*I throw down*); prostrate, consternation.
Stirps (*root*); extirpate.
Sto, statum (*I stand*); station, stature, stable, distant, obstacle, armistice, substance.
Statuo (*I set up*); statue, statute.
Stringo, strictum (*I tighten*); stringent, strain, strict, strait.
Struo, structum (*I pile up*); construct, destroy, construe.
Studium (*zeal*); study.
Stupeo (*I am amazed*); stupid.
Suadeo (*I advise*); suasion, persuade.
Sum (*I am*), root *es*, ens (*being*); entity. present. Futurus (*about to be*); future.
Summus (*highest*); sum, summit.
Sumo, sumptum (*I take*); assume, consume, consumption.
Super (*above*); superior, supreme.
Surgo (*I rise*); surge, resurrection.
Taceo (*I am silent*); tacit, taciturn.
Tango, tactum (*I touch*) tact, contact, contagion, contiguous, attain, attach.
Tardus (*slow*); retard, tardy.
Tego, tectum (*I cover*); protect, integument.
Temno (*I despise*); contemn.
Tempero (*I moderate*); temperate, temper.
Templum; temple, contemplate.
Tempus (*time*); temporal, tense.
Tendo, tensum (*I stretch*); contend, intend, tense, tension.
Teneo, tentum (*I hold*); tenant, tenacious, tenour, retain, content, retinue, continuous.
Tento *or* tempto (*I try*); tempt, attempt.
Terminus (*boundary*); term, terminate.
Tero, tritum (*I rub*); trite, contrition.
Terra (*earth*); terrestrial, terrene, inter, terrier, terrace.
Terreo (*I frighten*); terrify, terror, deter.
Testis (*witness*); testify, testimony, attest, detest, protest.
Texo, textum (*I weave*); text, context, texture, textile.
Timeo (*I fear*); timid.
Torqueo, tortum (*I twist*); torsion, contort, torture, torment.
Torreo, tostum (*I parch*); torrid, toast.
Totus (*whole*); total.
Traho, tractum (*I draw*); treat, tract, attract.
Tremo (*I tremble*); tremour, tremendous.
Tres, tria (*three*); trefoil, trident, trinity.
Tribuo (*I assign*); tribute.
Tribus; tribe tribune.
Trudo, trusum (*I thrust*); extrude, intrusion.
Tueor (*I protect*); tuition, tutor.
Tumeo (*I swell*); tumid, tumult.
Tundo, tusum (*I thump*); contusion.
Turba (*mob*); turbulent, turbid.
Ultra (*beyond*), ulterior (*further*), ultimus (*furthest*); ulterior, ultimate, penult.
Umbra (*shade*); umbrage, umbrella.
Uncia (*a twelfth part*); ounce, inch, uncial.
Unguo, unctum (*I anoint*; unguent, ointment, unction.
Unda (*wave*): abound, redound, abundant, inundate, undulate.
Unus (*one*); union, unit, triune, uniform, universe, unique.
Urbs (*city*); urban, suburb.
Urgeo (*I press*); urge, urgent.
Uro, ustum (*I burn*); combustion.
Utor, usus (*I use*); use, utility, usury.
Vaco (*I am unoccupied*); vacant, vacation, vacate, vacuum, evacuate.
Vagor (*I wander*), vagus (*wandering*); vague, vagrant, vagabond.
Valeo (*I am strong*); valid, valour, value, avail, prevail.
Vanus (*empty*); vain, vanity.
Vapor (*steam*); vapour, evaporate.
Veho, vectum (*I carry*); convey, convex, inveigh, vehicle.
Vello, vulsum (*I pluck*); convulse, revulsion.
Velum (*covering*); veil, reveal, develop.
Vendo (*I sell*); vend, venal.
Veneror (*I worship*); venerate, revere.
Venio, ventum (*I come*); convene, venture, convent, prevent, revenue, convenient, covenant.
Ventus (*wind*); ventilate.
Verbum (*word*); verb, verbal. proverb.
Verto, versum (*I turn*); verse, version, convert, divorce, adverse, advertise, universe, vortex, vertical.
Verus (*true*); verity, verify, aver.
Vestis (*garment*); vest, vesture, vestry.
Vetus (*old*); inveterate. veteran.
Via (*road*); deviate, pervious, trivial.
Vicis (*change*); vicissitude, vicar.
Video, visum (*I see*); visible, vision, provide, revise, visage, prudence, providence, survey, envy.
Vilis (*cheap*); vile, vilify.
Vinco, victum (*I conquer*); victor, vanquish, victim, convince, convict.
Vir (*man*), virtus (*manliness*); virtue, virago, triumvir, virile.
Vis (*force*); violent.
Vita (*life*); vital.
Vitium (*fault*); vice, vicious, vitiate.
Vivo, victum (*I live*); revive, vivify, vivacious, victuals.
Voco (*I call*), vox (*voice*); voice, vocal, vocation, invocate, convoke, vowel
Volo (*I will*): voluntary, benevolent, volition.
Volvo, volutum (*I roll*); revolve, volume, revolution, voluble.
Voro (*I devour*); voracious, devour.
Voveo, votum (*I vow*); vote. votive, votary, devote, devout.
Vulgus (*common people*); vulgar, divulge.
Vulnus (*wound*); vulnerable.

List of the principal Greek Words Derivatives from which have been adopted into English.

Ἄγγελος (angelos, *messenger*) ; angel, evangelist.
Ἄγιος (*sacred*) ; hagiology.
Ἀγωγή (*leading*) ; synagogue.
Ἀγών (*struggle*) ; agony, antagonist.
Ἀδάμας (*steel*) ; adamant, diamond.
Ἀήρ (*air*) ; aeronaut, aerostation.
Ἆθλον (*contest*) ; athlete, athletic.
Αἰθήρ (*sky*) ; ether, ethereal.
Αἷμα (*blood*) ; haemorrhage.
Αἴνιγμα (*riddle*) ; enigma.
Αἵρεσις (*choice*) ; heresy, heretic.
Αἴσθησις (*perception*) ; aesthetics.
Ἀκαδήμεια ; academy.
Ἀκμή (*point*) ; acme.
Ἀκολουθέω (*I follow*) ; acolyte *or* acolyth.
Ἀκούω (*I hear*) ; acoustics.
Ἀκροάομαι (*I listen*) ; acroamatic.
Ἄκρος (*top*) ; acropolis.
Ἄλλος (*other*) ; allopathy.
Ἀλλήλους (*one another*) ; parallel.
Ἄλφα (*a*) ; alphabet.
Ἀμφί (*on both sides*) ; amphibious, amphitheatre.
Ἄνεμος (*wind*) ; anemometer.
Ἄνθος (*flower*) ; anthology.
Ἄνθραξ (*coal*) ; anthracite.
Ἄνθρωπος (*man*) ; anthropology, philanthropy.
Ἀξίωμα (*claim, demand*) ; axiom.
Ἄρκτος (*bear*) ; arctic.
Ἀριθμός (*number*) ; arithmetic.
Ἄριστος (*best*) ; aristocracy.
Ἁρμονία ; harmony.
Ἀρτηρία ; artery.
Ἀρχή (*rule, beginning*) ; monarch, archangel, architect.
Ἄσκέω (*I exercise*) ; ascetic.
Ἀστήρ (*star*) ; astral, asteroid, astronomy.
Ἄω (*I breathe*) ; asthma, atmosphere.
Αὐτός (*self*) ; autograph, autocrat.
Βάλλω (*I throw*), βολή, βλῆμα ; hyperbole, parable, emblem, symbol.
Βάπτω, βαπτίζω ; baptize.
Βάρβαρος (*not Greek*) ; barbarous.
Βάρος (*weight*) ; barometer.
Βάσις (*treading, support*) ; base, basis.
Βιβλίον (*book*) ; Bible, bibliopole.
Βίος (*life*) ; biography, amphibious.
Βλασφημία ; blasphemy.
Βόμβυξ (*silk-worm*) ; bombazine.
Βοτάνη (*grass*) ; botany.
Βρόγχος (*windpipe*) ; bronchitis.
Γῆ (*earth*) ; apogee, geography, geology.
Γάλα (*milk*) ; galaxy.
Γάμος (*marriage*) ; bigamy.
Γαστήρ (*belly*) ; gastric, gastronomy.
Γένος (*race*) ; genealogy.
Γίγας ; giant, gigantic.
Γλῶσσα (*tongue*) ; gloss, glossary.
Γλύφω (*carve*) ; hieroglyphic.
Γνώμων (*pointer*) ; gnomon, physiognomy.
Γράφω (*I write*) ; grammar, telegraph, graphic, paragraph.
Γυμνάζω (*I exercise*) ; gymnastic.
Γυνή (*woman*) ; misogynous.
Δάκτυλος (*finger*) ; dactyl.
Δαίμων (*divinity*) ; demon.
Δεῖγμα (*pointing*) ; paradigm.
Δέκα (*ten*) ; decalogue.
Δένδρον (*tree*) ; dendrology.
Δῆμος (*people*) ; democracy.
Δίαιτα (*way of living*) ; diet.
Διδάσκω (*I teach*) ; didactic.
Δίπλωμα (*anything folded*) ; diploma.
Δόγμα (*opinion*) ; dogma, dogmatic.
Δόξα (*opinion, glory*) ; orthodox, doxology.
Δράω (*I act*) ; drastic, drama.
Δρόμος (*running*) ; hippodrome.
Δύναμις (*power*) ; dynamics, dynasty.
Ἕδρα (*seat*) ; cathedral.
Ἔθνος (*race*) ; ethnic, heathen, ethnology.
Ἔθος (*custom*) ; ethics.
Εἶδος (*form*) ; kaleidoscope, cycloid, &c.
Εἴδωλον (*image*) ; idol, idolatry.
Εἰκών (*image*) ; iconoclast.
Εἰρωνεία (*dissimulation*) ; irony.
Ἐλαστικός (*that may be driven*) ; elastic.
Ἐλεημοσύνη (*pity*) ; eleemosynary.

Ἑλλην (*Greek*) ; Hellenic.
Ἑν (*one*) ; hyphen.
Ἔνδον (*within*) ; endogenous.
Ἔντερα (*entrails*) ; dysentery.
Ἕξ (*six*) ; hexagon.
Ἔξω (*outside*) ; exoteric.
Ἑπτα (*seven*) ; heptarchy.
Ἔργον (*work*) ; energy, metallurgy.
Ἐρῆμος (*solitary*) ; eremite, hermit.
Ἕτερος (*other*) ; heterodox, heterogeneous.
Ἔτυμος (*true*) ; etymology.
Εὖ (*well*) ; eulogy, euphony.
Ἔχω (*I hold*) ; epoch.
Ζώνη (*girdle*) ; zone.
Ζῶον, ζῴδιον (*animal*) ; zoology, zoophyte, zodiac.
Ἡγησις (*leading*) ; exegesis.
Ἤλεκτρον (*amber*) ; electricity.
Ἥλιος (*sun*) ; heliacal, heliotrope.
Ἡμέρα (*day*) ; ephemeral.
Ἥμι (*half*) ; hemisphere.
Ἥρως ; hero.
Ἠχή, ἠχώ (*sound*) ; echo, catechize.
Θεάομαι (*I behold*) ; theatre, theory, theorem.
Θαῦμα (*wonder*) ; thaumatrope.
Θεός (*God*) ; theology, theism, enthusiast.
Θερμός (*heat*) ; thermometer, isothermal.
Θεραπεύω (*I heal*) ; therapeutics.
Θέσις, θέμα (*placing*) ; anathema, antithesis, epithet, theme.
Θήκη (*box*) ; hypothecate, apothecary.
Θυμός (*mind*) ; enthymeme.
Ἰδέα (*form*) ; idea.
Ἴδιος (*peculiar*)[;] ἰδιώτης, ἴδίωμα ; idiom, idiot, idiosyncrasy.
Ἱερός (*sacred*) ; hierarch ; hieroglyphic.
Ἱλαρός (*cheerful*) ; hilarity.
Ἵππος (*horse*) ; Philip, hippopotamus.
Ἶρις ; iris, iridescent.
Ἴσος (*equal*) ; isomorphous, isochronous, isosceles (σκέλος = leg).
Ἱστορία (*investigation*) ; history, story.
Ἰχθύς (*fish*) ; ichthyology.
Καλέω (*I call*) ; ἐκκλησία ; ecclesiastic.
Καλός (*beautiful*) ; κάλλος (*beauty*) ; calligraphy, calotype, calisthenic.
Καλύπτω (*I hide*) ; apocalypse.
Καθαρός (*pure*) ; cathartic.
Κακός (*bad*) ; cacophonous.
Κανῶν (*rule*) ; canon, canonical.
Καυστικός (*burning*) ; caustic.
Κέντρον (*point*) ; centre.
Κλίμα (*slope*) ; climate.
Κλῖμαξ (*ladder*) ; climax, climacteric.
Κλίνω (*I bend*) ; incline, enclitic.
Κοινός (*common*) ; epicene.
Κόγχη (*cockle*) ; conchology.
Κόσμος (*world*) ; cosmical, microcosm.
Κομήτης (*long-haired*) ; comet.
Κρανίον (*skull*) ; cranium.
Κράτος (*strength*) ; autocrat, democrat.
Κρίνω (*I judge*) ; κρίσις, κριτικός ; critic, crisis, hypocrisy.
Κρύσταλλος (*ice*) ; crystal.
Κρύπτω (*I hide*) ; apocrypha, crypt.
Κύκλος (*circle*) ; cycle, cycloid, cyclopædia.
Κύλινδρος (*roller*) ; cylinder.
Κύβος ; cube.
Κύων (*dog*) ; cynic.
Κυριακός (*belonging to the Lord*) ; church.
Κῶμος (*festivity*) ; encomium.
Κῶνος ; cone.
Λέγω (*say, choose*) ; eclectic.
Λέξις (*speech*) ; lexicon, dialect.
Λαμβάνω (*I take*) ; epilepsy, syllable.
Λείπω (*I leave*) ; ellipse, eclipse.
Λειχήν ; lichen.
Λεῖτος (*belonging to the people*) ; liturgy.
Λίθος (*stone*) ; lithography, lithic.
Λόγος (*speech, reason*) ; logic, dialogue, syllogism.
Λύρα ; lyre, lyric.
Λύω (*loosen*) ; paralysis.
Μάγος ; Magian, magic.
Μακρός (*long*) ; macrocosm.
Μάθημα (*learning*) ; mathematics.
Μάρτυς (*witness*) ; martyr.
Μέλας (*black*) ; melancholy.
Μέλος (*tune*) ; melody.
Μέταλλον ; metal.
Μέτρον (measure) ; meter, barometer.
Μήτηρ (*mother*) ; metropolis.
Μηχανή (*contrivance*) ; mechanics.
Μιαίνω (*I pollute*) ; miasma.
Μικρός (*small*) ; microscope.
Μῖμος (*imitator*) ; mimic.
Μῖσος (*hatred*) ; misanthrope.
Μνήμων (*remembering*) ; mnemonic.

Μόνος (*only*); monarch, monogamy, monotheism.
Μοναχός; monk.
Μορφή (*form*); amorphous.
Μυστηρία; mystery.
Ναῦς (*ship*); nautical, nausea (sea-sickness).
Ναρκόω (*I benumb*); narcotic.
Νεκρός (*dead*); necropolis, necromancy.
Νέος (*new*); neology, neophyte.
Νεῦρον (*string, nerve*); neuralgia.
Νῆσος (*island*); Polynesia.
Νομός (*law*); antinomian, astronomy, gastronomy.
Νόσος (*disease*); nosology.
Ὀβελίσκος; obelisk.
Ὁδός (*way*); exodus, method, period.
Οἶκος (*house*); economy.
Οἴκησις (*dwelling*); **οἰκέω** (*I inhabit*); dioc se, oecumenical.
Ὅλος (*whole*); catholic, holocaust.
Ὅμοιος (*like*); homoeopathy.
Ὁμός (*same*); homogeneous.
Ὄνομα, ονυμα (*name*); synonymous, patronymic.
Ὀξύς (*sharp*); oxygen, paroxysm.
Ὀπτικός (*belonging to sight*); optics, synopsis.
Ὁράω (*I see*); panorama.
Ὄργανον (*instrument*); organ.
Ὀρθός (*straight*); orthodox, orthography.
Ὁρίζω (*I define*); horizon, aorist.
Ὄρνις (*bird*); ornithology.
Ὀρφανός; orphan.
Ὀρχήστρα (*dancing-place*); orchestra.
Ὀστέον (*bone*); osteology.
Ὄφις (*serpent*); ophicleide.
Ὀφθαλμός (*eye*); ophthalmia.
Παλαιός (*ancient*); palaeography.
Πᾶν (*all*); pantheism, pantomime.
Πάν (*Pan*); panic.
Πάθος (*suffering, affection*); pathos, sympathy, pathetic.
Παῖς (*boy*); paedagogue.
Πανήγυρις (*assembly*); panegyric.
Παιδεία (*instruction*); cyclopaedia.
Πατέω (*I walk*); peripatetic.
Παῦσις (*stopping*); pause.
Πεῖρα (*trial*); empirical.
Πέντε (*five*); pentagon.
Πεντηκοστός (*fiftieth*); pentecost.
Πέταλον (*leaf*); petal.
Πέτρα (*rock*); petrify, Peter.
Πέπω (*digest*); dyspeptic.
Πλάσσω (*I mould, daub*), **πλαστικός**; plastic, plaster.
Πλανήτης (*wandering*); planet.
Πλήσσω (*strike*); apoplexy.
Ποιέω (*I make*); poet.
Πόλεμος (*war*); polemic.
Πόλος (*bowl, pole*); pole, polar.
Πόλις (*city*); polity, policy, metropolis.
Πολύς (*many*); polygon, polygamy polytheism.
Πομπή (*procession*); pomp, pompous.
Πούς (*foot*); antipodes, tripod.
Πράσσω (*I do*); practice, pragmatical.
Πρεσβύτερος (*elder*); presbyter, prester, priest.
Πρίσμα (*something sawn*); prism.
Πρῶτος (*first*); prototype.
Πτῶμα (*fall*); symptom.
Πῦρ (*fire*); pyrotechnics, empyrean.
Πωλέω (*I sell*); monopoly.
Ῥέω (*I flow*), **ῥευμα**; catarrh, rheum, rheumatic.
Ῥήγνυμι (*I break*); cataract.
Ῥήτωρ (*orator*); rhetoric.
Ῥίς (*nose*); rhinoceros.
Ῥυθμός (*measured motion*); rhythm.
Σάρξ (*flesh*); sarcophagus.
Σαρκάζω (*I tear the flesh*); sarcastic.
Σβέννυμι (*I extinguish*); asbestos.
Σίφων (*tube*); siphon.
Σῖτος (*food*); parasite.
Σκάνδαλον (*stumbling-block*); scandal.
Σκηνή (*tent, stage*); scene.
Σκῆπτρον (*staff*); sceptre.
Σκοπέω (*I look*), **σκοπός**; episcopal, bishop, scope, telescope, microscope.
Σπάω (*I draw*); spasm.
Σπέρμα (*seed*), **σπορά**; spermatic, sporadic.
Σπεῖρα (*coil*); spire, spiral.
Στάσις (*standing*); apostasy, ecstasy, system.
Στέλλω (*I despatch*); epistle, apostle.
Στενός (*narrow*); stenography.
Στερεός (*solid*); stereoscope, stereotype.
Στίγμα (*brand*); stigma.
Στίχος (*line*); distich, acrostic.
Στρατός (*army*); strategy.

Στροφή (*turning*); catastrophe, apostrophe.
Σῦκον (*fig*); sycophant.
Σφαῖρα (*ball*); sphere.
Σφύζω (*I throb*); asphyxia.
Σχῆμα (*form, make*); scheme.
Σχίζω (*I divide*); schism.
Σχολή (*leisure*); school, scholar.
Ταὐτό (*the same*); tautology.
Τάφος (*tomb*); epitaph.
Τάξις (*arrangement*); syntax.
Τόνος (*stretching, pitch*); tone, tonic, monotony.
Τομή (*cutting*); atom, epitome, entomology.
Τεῦχος (*implement, book*); pentateuch.
Τῆλε (*far off*); telescope, telegraph.
Τόπος (*place*); topography, topic.
Τρόπος (*turning*); tropic, trope.
Τύπος (*shape*); type.
Τύραννος; tyrant.
Ὑγρός (*moist*); hygrometer.
Ὕδωρ (*water*); dropsy, hydrate, hydrostatics, hydrogen, hydrophobia.
Ὕμνος; hymn, anthem.
Ὕπνος (*sleep*); hypnotic.
Ὑστέρα (*womb*); hysteria, hysterical.
Φάγω (*I eat*); sarcophagus.
Φαίνω (*I show*); phenomenon, phantom, phase.
Φάρμακον (*drug*); pharmacy.
Φέρω (*I bear*); phosphorus, metaphor.
Φημί (*I say*); emphasis, prophecy.
Φθογγή (*voice, vowel*); diphthong.
Φθίσις (*wasting*); phthisic.
Φίλος (*fond of*); philosophy, Philip.
Φλέβς (*vein*); phlebotomy.
Φλέγμα (*inflammation, slimy humour*); phlegm.
Φόβος (*fear*) hydrophobia.
Φράγμα (*fence*); diaphragm.
Φράσις (*saying*); phrase.
Φρήν (*mind*); phrenology.
Φύσις (*nature*); physics, physiology.
Φυτόν (*plant*); zoophyte.
Φωνή (*voice*); phonetic, phonography.
Φῶς (*light*); photography.
Χάος (*empty space*); chaos.
Χαρακτήρ (*something engraved*); character.
Χάρις (*thanks*); eucharist.
Χείρ (*hand*); chirography, chiromancy.
Χίλιοι (*thousand*); kilogramme.
Χίμαιρα (*a fabulous monster*); chimerical.
Χολή (*bile*); melancholy.
Χόνδρος (*cartilage of the breast*); hypochondriac.
Χορδή (*string*); chord.
Χορός (*dance*); chorus, choir.
Χρόνος (*time*); chronology.
Χρίω (*I anoint*); Christ, Christian.
Χρῶμα (*colour*); achromatic.
Χυμός, χυλός (*juice*); chyme, chyle.
Χῶρος (*place*); chorography.
Ψάλλω (*I play the lyre*); psalm.
Ψεῦδος (*falsehood*); pseudonym.
Ψυχή (*soul*); psychology.
Ὠδή (*song*); ode, monody, parody.
Ὤν, ὄντος (*being*); ontology.
Ὥρα (*hour*); horology, horoscope.
Ὠσμός (*thrusting*); endosmose.

The above list does not include a large number of scientific terms employed in botany, medicine, zoology, &c.

The following table of the Greek alphabet is inserted for the use of those who are unacquainted with the Greek character :—

Α, α = a. Β, β = b. Γ, γ = g. Δ, δ = d. Ε, ε = ĕ. Ζ, ζ = z. Η, η = ē. Θ, θ = th. Ι, ι = i. Κ, κ = k or c. Λ, λ = l. Μ, μ = m. Ν, ν = n. Ξ, ξ = x. Ο, ο = ŏ. Π, π = p. Ρ, ρ = r. Σ, σ = s. Τ, τ = t. Υ, υ = u. Φ, φ = ph. Χ, χ = ch. Ψ, ψ = ps. Ω, ω = ō.

Miscellaneous Words adopted from Foreign Languages.

French.—Beau, belle, bon-mot, bouquet, congé, depot, éclat, ennui, envelope, foible, naive, environs, etiquette, penchant, picquet, soirée, toilette, trousseau, &c.

Italian.—Alarm (all' arme), alert (all' erta, *from Lat.* erectus), ambassador (*ultimately from the Gothic* andbahts, '*servant*'), avast (*It.* basta) bass (*Lat.* bassus, '*fat, squat*'), bassoon, baluster (*vulgarly* banister), balustrade, bandit (*root* 'ban'), bravo, brigade, brigand, brigantine, brocade, bronze, burlesque, bust, cameo cannon ('*a great tube*,' from *Lat.* canna), canto, canteen, cape (*from* caput), caper (*from Lat.* caper), captain, caravel, caricature ('an exaggeration,' *from* caricare, 'to load'), cartel, cartoon (*Lat.* carta; cartone = *large or thick paper, pasteboard*), charlatan, citadel, companion ('*a comrade,' one who shares your bread, from* con *and* panis), concert, concerted (*probably from* concertare), conversazione, cosset (*It.* casiccio, '*a lamb brought up by hand in the house*'), cupola, ditto, dilettante, domino, dram, farrago (*mixed food, from* 'far'), folio, fresco, gabion, gala, gallant, garnet, gazette, granite, gondola, grate, grotto, harlequin, improvisatore, incognito, influenza, inveigle, lava, lupine, macaroni, manifesto, madrigal, mezzotint, motto, opera, paladin, pantaloon, piazza, palette, parapet (*from* petto, '*the breast*'), parasol, pigeon (piccione), pilgrim (pelegrino, *from* peregrinus), pistol, policy (*of insurance*, &c., polizza, *a corruption of* polyptychum, '*a memorandum book of many leaves*'), porcupine (porcospino), portico, proviso, regatta, scaramouch, sketch, soprano, stanza, stiletto, stucco, studio, tenor, terra-cotta, torso, umbrella, virtue, virtuoso, vista, volcano.

Spanish.—Alligator (el lagarto), armada, barricade, battledore (batador), caparison, capon, cargo, caracole (caracol, '*a winding staircase*'), castanets, chocolate, cigar, clarion, clarionet, cochineal, cork, (corcho, *from* cortex), creole, desperado, discard, dismay (desmayar, '*to faint*'), don, duenna, embargo, embarrass, filigree, filibuster, flotilla, grandee, jade (ijada, '*the flanks*,' ijadear, '*to pant*'), javelin (*a boar-spear, from* jabali '*wild boar*'), jennet, lawn (lona, '*transparent texture*'), mulatto, negro, pamphlet (*perhaps from* papelete, '*a note*'), pawn (peone, '*a labourer*'), pedestal, pillion, pint (pinta, '*a mark*'), platinum, punctilio, renegade (*corrupted into* runagate), savannah, sherry (Xeres), tornado, verandah.

Portuguese.—Caste, cocoa, commodore (commendador), fetish, mandarin (mandar, '*to have authority*'), marmalade (marmelo '*quince*'), palaver (*derived from* parabola '*parable*'), porcelain.

Dutch.—Boom, sprit, reef, schooner, skate, sloop, stiver, taffrail, yacht, (jaghten, '*to chase*').

Arabic.—Admiral (*properly* ammiral), alchemy, alcohol (al-kohl, '*the fine powder of antimony*'), alembic, algebra (al-gebr, '*union or combination*'), alkali, almanac, amber, amulet, arrack (araq, '*sweat*'), assassin (*eater of* hashish), azimuth, cadi, caliph, camphor, carat, cipher, coffee, cotton, dragoman, elixir, emir, fakir, gazelle, giraffe, harem, hazard, jar, lute, magazine, mameluke, minaret, monsoon, moslem, mosque, mufti, mummy,

nadir, naphtha, salaam, simoon, sirocco, sofa, sugar, sultan, syrup, talisman, tamarind, vizier, zenith, zero.

Hebrew.—Abbot, amen, behemoth, cabal, cherub, ephod, hallelujah, hosanna, jubilee, leviathan, manna, sabbath, seraph, shibboleth.

Persian.—Azure, balcony, bashaw *or* pasha, bazaar, caravan, checkmate (shahmat, '*king dead*'), chess, dervish, hookah, jackal, lilac, musk, orange, paradise, scimitar, shawl, sherbet, taffeta, turban.

Hindustani.—Buggy, bungalow, calico, chintz, chutnee, coolie, cowrie, curry, jungle, lac, mulligatawny, nabob, pagoda, palanquin, pariah, punch, pundit, rajah, rupee, sepoy, suttee, toddy.

Chinese.—Bohea, caddy, congou, gong, hyson, junk, nankeen, pekoe, tea.

Malay.—Amuck, bamboo, caoutchouc, gutta-percha, orang-outang, sago.

Turkish.—Bey, chibouk, janissary, sash, tulip, seraglio.

Polynesian.—Taboo, tattoo, kangaroo.

North and South American Indian.—Condor, hammock, lama, maize, mocassin, pampas, pemmican, potato, squaw, tobacco, tomahawk, tomata, wigwam.

Most of the words in this section will be found in the lists given by Dr. Adams, Dr. Angus, Mr. Bain, &c., and are treated in detail in the best etymological dictionaries, especially those by Wedgwood, Müller, and Stormonth.

EXERCISES.

I. Common Nouns and Proper Nouns.

Preliminary Lesson.—Definition of a Noun. Distinction between Common Nouns and Proper Nouns (§§ 31–37).

Exercise 1. Say (or write) ten common nouns which are the names of each of the following things :—

1. Animals. 2. Trees and flowers. 3. Things that you see in the room. 4. Things to eat, to wear, or to play with. 5. Some stuff or material.

Say (or write) ten proper nouns which are names of

1. Boys or girls. 2. Towns. 3. Countries. 4. Rivers or mountains. 5. Dogs or horses. 6. Ships. 7. Houses or parks.

Exercise 2. Write the Common Nouns in the following sentences in one list, and the Proper Nouns in another :—

John likes school. My brother has a horse called Dobbin. The boys were reading about the battle of Agincourt. Bellerophon rode a winged horse called Pegasus. My uncle is the captain of the 'Bellerophon.' Lie down, Fido. The traveller ascended Helvellyn. March is a cold month. The soldiers had a weary march. She brought me a bunch of may. I like May better than June. King Arthur's sword was called Excalibur. We saw an eclipse of the sun. The horse that won the race was Eclipse. Petrels and swallows are birds. That cow has lost a horn. He sailed round Cape Horn in the 'Petrel.'

> "O Solitude! where are thy charms?"
> "Hence, loathed Melancholy,
> Of Cerberus and blackest midnight born.
> Find out some uncouth cell
> Where brooding darkness spreads his jealous wings."

"You may avoid that too with an 'if'" (*Shaksp.*). "Tellest thou me of ifs?" He wants to know the why and the wherefore of everything. (See § 349, 5.)

II. Singular and Plural.

Preliminary Lesson.—Definition of Number. Modes of forming the plural (§§ 47, &c.).

Exercise 3. A. Write the plural of each of the following nouns :—

Boot. Sheaf. Chimney. Enemy. Valley. Duty. Osprey. Calf. Echo. Cargo. Negro. Sky. Dray. Convoy. Buoy. Victory. Loaf. Wife. Leaf. Stuff. Scarf. Speech. Ass. Grass. Thrush.

B. Write the singular of each of the following nouns :—

Arches. Trespasses. Mice. Lice. Feet. Halves. Staves. Waves. Pies. Lies. Cries. Flies. Bruises. Trees. Kine. Oxen. Children. Bees. Noses. Nooses. Pence.

III. Capital Letters.

Preliminary Lesson.—Use of capital letters (§ 6, *note*).

Exercise 4. Copy out the following examples two or three times and then write them from dictation :—

The mayors of provincial towns. The Lord Mayor. The barristers and solicitors. The Solicitor-General. A court of justice. The Lord Chief Justice. I speak of lords and commoners. The Lords and Commons. The princes and dukes. The Prince of Wales. The Duke of Bedford. The recorder of these events. The Recorder of Carlisle. The office of sheriff. Mr. Sheriff Johnson. The house of mourning. The House of Commons. Our common supplications. The Book of Common Prayer. An object in the middle distance. A student of the Middle Temple. The first chapter. James the First. The prescription of the doctor. The life of Dr. Johnson. The clemency of the conqueror. William the Conqueror. We have a good hope through grace. The Cape of Good Hope. The evangelist Matthew. St. John the Evangelist. The death of the emperor. O Death, where is thy sting?

IV. Verbs, Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—Definition of Verb, Subject, Predicate, Sentence. Use of the Nominative Case. Agreement of the verb with its subject (§§ 179, &c., 374).

Exercise 5. Point out the subject and the verb in each of the following sentences, and explain their functions, that is, what they do in the sentence. Thus, "Boys play." 'Boys' is the *subject*, because it stands for that about which we tell something by means of the verb. It is in the nominative case. 'Play' is a verb ; it tells us something about *boys*.*

Birds fly. John works. Cats scratch. Snow falls. Soldiers fight. Stars shine. Geese cackle. Horses neigh. Up went the rocket. Down came the rain. In came William. Thus ends the tale. Then cometh the end. Here comes papa. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight. Deep drank Lord Marmion of the wave.

* Not about the *subject*, because the subject of a sentence is only a *word*, and the verb tells us something, not about *a word*, but about *that for which the word stands*. Beware of confusion about this.

Exercise 6. Put some verb or other with each of the following nouns, so as to make a sentence :—

Grass. John. Trees. Cows. The sun. Stars. The wind. Mary. The child. Dogs. Lions. Owls. Mice. Boys. The bird. Parsons. The candle. Horses. Water. Soldiers. Ships. Day. The leaves. Puss. Rain.

The following are verbs of which you can make use :—

Sail. Fight. Swim. Sink. Shine. Dawn. Howl. Shriek. Play. Squeal. Grow. Fall. Work. Graze. Twinkle. Blow. Run. Squeak. Roar. Preach. Cry. Sing. Kick. Scratch.

Put a subject of the proper number before each of the following verbs :—

Shine. Chatter. Plays. Sing. Sings. Howl. Scratches. Run. Flies. Appear. Arrive. Sinks. Float. Dances. Glitters. Growl. Works. Pray. Break. Speaks.

V. The Possessive Case.

Preliminary Lesson.—Formation and use of the Possessive Case (§§ 67, &c.).

Exercise 6*b*. Draw one line under those nouns in the following sentences which are in the nominative case plural ; two lines under those which are in the possessive case singular ; and three lines under those which are in the possessive case plural ; and show in each instance to what other noun the noun in the possessive case is attached. This may be done by placing the same numeral over each, as " I found Henry's book and William's slate."

1 1 2 2

John's hands are dirty. Men's lives are short. Hens' eggs are white. The children's voices are loud. The horses ate the oxen's food. The keeper caught the vixen's cubs. Goats' milk is wholesome. A cheese was made from the goat's milk. The bird's leg was broken. The birds have built nests in the farmer's barn. The farmers' barns are full of corn. The bakers' shops were shut. The baker's bread was spoilt. The masters heard the boys' lessons. The boys tore the master's book. The boy taxed the masters' patience. The men heard of their wives' danger. The kittens are in Mary's lap. The boy pulled the kitten's tail. Peter's wife's mother lay sick of a fever. John's day's work is nearly finished. Tom's horse's leg was broken I bought this paper at the stationer's. He lodges at the baker's. We went to St. Paul's this morning.

VI. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.

Preliminary Lesson.—Distinction between Transitive Verbs and Intransitive Verbs. The Object of a Verb. The Objective Case (§§ 182, 183).

Exercise 7. In the following sentences point out which nouns are subjects of verbs and which are objects of verbs. In each case explain the use of the Subject, as in Exercise 5, and explain the use of the Object as follows :—"'John struck the ball.' The word *ball* is the object of the verb, because it stands for that which is the object of the action denoted by the verb."

John touched Henry. Cats eat mice. Bakers make bread. A lion devoured a sheep. The boys waste time. The horse kicked the groom. The groom kicked the horse. The man broke his leg.

Exercise 8. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the transitive verbs, and two lines under the intransitive verbs :—

Men eat bread. Cats mew. Sheep eat grass. The sheep graze. The boys learn lessons. The boys play in the yard. The hound chased the hare. The dog barked. The butcher killed the pig. The pig squealed. The child screamed. The boy struck his brother.

Exercise 9. In the following examples put in an object where it is wanted to show what the action denoted by the verb is done to :—

The boy hates. Men pray. The parson preaches. Mary wrote. The dog howled. The dog bit. The horse carries. The horse neighs. The man desires. The girls dance. Birds build. Birds twitter. Mary died. Rain fell. The lightning struck. Clouds covered. The sun warms. The sun shines.

Exercise 10. Make a dozen sentences containing a subject, a transitive verb, and an object, and a dozen containing a subject and an intransitive verb.

VII. Verbs used transitively, intransitively, and reflectively.

Preliminary Lesson.—Verbs used (with a difference of meaning) 1. as transitive verbs ; 2. as intransitive verbs ; 3. as reflective verbs (§ 183).

Exercise 11. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the verbs that are used transitively, two lines under those that are used intransitively, and three under those that are used reflectively. A verb should be treated as a transitive verb used *reflectively* whenever a reflective pronoun can be supplied as an object so as to make the sense more complete, as "I always wash [myself] with cold water" ; "The visitors withdrew [themselves]" :—

The travellers started yesterday. The hunter started a hare. The man spoke French. The man spoke well. The boys play in the garden. The girl plays the piano. The ship sank. The man sank his fortune in the undertaking.

The judge tried the prisoner. The thief tried the lock. The boy tried hard. The traveller returned yesterday. The merchant returned the goods. The old man slipped on the ice. He slipped a shilling into my hand. The audience hooted the speaker. Owls hoot. He has twisted his ankle. The snake twists and turns about. The earth turns round. He turned the man out of the room. He gave up the game. You had better give in. The town surrendered. The governor surrendered the town. We all rejoiced at his success. His safe return rejoiced us all. The barber shaved me yesterday. He has not shaved this morning. I withdrew my claim. The deputation withdrew. Take this chair. Take yourself off. Get your umbrella. Get thee gone. Get up. Get out of my way. He made a noise. He made off as fast as he could. He cut his finger. He cut away pretty quickly. The singer delighted the audience. I delight to hear him.

Exercise 12. Find a dozen other verbs that may be used both transitively and intransitively, and six that may be used reflectively without being followed by a reflective pronoun, and make sentences to illustrate their use.

VIII. Words used both as Nouns and as Verbs.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study the meaning and use of the word *iron*, in such sentences as '*Iron* is heavy' and 'The women *iron* the shirts.'

Exercise 13. Take the words in italics in the following sentences, and say in each case whether the word is a noun (because it is the *name* of something), or a verb (because it *tells* you what some person or thing does):—

He took a pinch of *snuff*. John *snuffs* the candle. The *furrows* are not straight. Grief *furrows* the brow. The maid *milks* the cow. The children drink *milk*. *Steam* comes out of the kettle. The cook *steams* the meat. The *irons* are hot. The laundress *irons* the shirts. The passengers *crowd* the *deck*. A *crowd* filled the *square*. She *decks* herself with *ornaments*. We *squared* accounts. He *ornaments* the table with plate.

Exercise 14. Make sentences in which the following words are used:—1, as *nouns*; 2, as *verbs*.

Fly. Form. Beat. Work. Name. Whip. Pinch. Seat. Dig. Pocket. Cover. Shoe. Pen. Task. Hook. Eye.

Exercise 15. Find twenty more words which may be used either as nouns or as verbs.

IX. The Personal Pronouns.

Preliminary Lesson.—Forms and use of the Personal Pronouns, and of the Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person, Personal inflexions of verbs (§§ 131, &c., 218, 227).

Exercise 16.* Suppose John is speaking to Thomas, substitute the proper pronouns for their names in the following sentences, and the proper names for the pronouns :—

John saw Thomas in the garden. John's father has come home. Has Thomas's brother arrived? John's pony is lame. John has had John's dinner. John will lend Thomas John's knife. Will Thomas give John Thomas's stick.

You have hurt me. Did I hurt you? You have spoilt my book. I saw your father yesterday. Thy friends are here. My sister will call upon your mother. Your brother has sent for me. Did I not tell thee so?

Exercise 17. Substitute pronouns for nouns wherever they are proper in the following sentences, and state what nouns the pronouns stand for :—

Mary has lost Mary's thimble. John's mother has sent John to school, where John will learn to read. The dog's master beat the dog with a stick because the dog bit the master's leg. When the boys have finished the boys' lessons, the boys will go out to play.

The master praised the boy because he was attentive. The boys have lost their ball. The horse ran away with his rider. Parents love their children. When the girl was old enough, her mother sent her to school.

X. Pronouns as Subjects and Objects of Verbs.

Preliminary Lesson.—Inflexions of verbs to mark Person. Concord of Verb and Subject. (§§ 218, 227, 374.)

Exercise 18. Point out which pronouns in the following sentences are subjects of verbs, and which are objects, and explain their use in the same way as that of the nouns in Exercises 5 and 7.

I admire him because he is brave. They will love you if you are good. We shall see you to-morrow. You will meet us there. I often see her at church. They left us yesterday. The boy has hurt her. He has torn her frock. We took them home. Look at this book, it is John's; I found it in the garden. I will arm me. I will lay me down. Get thee gone. I will bethink me. Bethink you of some expedient. Arm you against your other foes.

XI. Direct Object and Indirect Object.

Preliminary Lesson.—Difference between the Direct Object and the Indirect Object of a verb (§§ 74; 370, 4).

Exercise 19. Draw one line under those nouns and pronouns in

* These exercises are very like some that have recently appeared elsewhere, and which in their turn resemble what appeared previously in the author's 'First Notions of Grammar.'

the following sentences which are direct objects of verbs, and two lines under those which are indirect objects :—

John gave Thomas a kick. Will you lend me a shilling? I gave him a book. They met us in the street and gave us some apples. Pass me the salt. Hand that lady the bread. Hand that lady to her seat. He dealt the cards. He dealt me a hard blow. Send me a letter. Send me to him. I fetched him a box on the ears. Mary fetched the beer. Pour your neighbour out a glass of beer. The policeman took the man to prison. The kind woman took the poor man a loaf. Let every soldier hew him down a bough. He got him a wife. I will get me a new coat. Shall we go and kill us venison? We will buy you a watch. We will disguise us. We make us comforts of our losses. This will last you all the year.

Exercise 20. Find a dozen verbs which may have objects of each kind, and make sentences to illustrate their use.

XII. Conjugation of Verbs. Tense Forms of the Active Voice.

Preliminary Lesson.—Formation of all the tenses in the Indicative Mood of the Active Voice. Parts of which the compound tenses are made up (§§ 204–209; 257).

Exercise 21. Change the verbs in the following sentences into each of the other tenses of the Indicative Mood, Active Voice, successively; naming the tenses as you do so :—

A. Strong Verbs. He throws a stone. We draw water. You see the house. He gives me an apple. She strikes her brother. He breaks his word. He drinks some ale. The soldiers fight bravely. I hold the reins. The sun shines. The cock crew. He slew his foe. It lay on the ground. We took good care. We stood in the street. They ate some bread. He seethes the flesh.

B. Weak Verbs. She spills the water. The dog was barking. We crept into bed. The man knelt down. He bleeds to death. He tells a lie. They spent their money. You sold your horse. The servant sweeps the room. We met our friend at his house. I read many books.

XIII. Tense Forms of the Passive Voice.

Preliminary Lesson.—Formation of the various tenses of the Indicative Mood of the Passive Voice (§ 187; 257).

Exercise 22. Change the verbs in the following sentences into each of the other tenses successively of the Indicative Mood in the Passive Voice; naming the tenses as you do so :—

A. Strong Verbs. A stone was thrown. The wine was drunk. We shall be struck. He was slain. The letter will be written. Money has been taken

out of the till. Goods have been stolen. Kind words are spoken. The sheep will be shorn.

B. Weak Verbs. The wine was spilt. The sparrow is caught. The house will be built. The children are scolded by the nurse. The report is spread. Meat had been sold by the butchers.

XIV. Mutual Relation of the Active and Passive Voices.

Preliminary Lesson.—When an action is described by means of the Passive Voice instead of the Active, the object of the verb in the Active Voice becomes the subject of the Verb in the Passive * (§ 186).

Exercise 23. Change all the following sentences so as to use passive verbs instead of active verbs. Thus for "The dog bit the cat," put "The cat was bitten by the dog": for "I am writing a letter" put "A letter is being written by me":—

The cat killed the rat. John broke the window. That surprises me. This will please you. The men are drinking the beer. We have received a letter. The boys have eaten the cake. They had not counted the cost. The men will have finished the work before night. The men will be carrying the hay to-morrow. We were gathering nuts in the wood. The servant had swept the room.

Exercise 24. Make a dozen sentences containing a transitive verb in the active voice, and then alter them as in the last exercise.

Exercise 25. Change all the following sentences so as to use active verbs instead of passive verbs in the same tense:—

The sparrow was caught by the boy. We were overtaken by a storm. A new house will be built by my brother. The children had been scolded by the nurse. The wine had been drunk by the butler. The door was opened by me. Too much was expected by them. The letter was written by us. Mice are caught by cats.

Exercise 26. Make a dozen sentences containing a transitive verb in the passive voice, and then alter them as in the last exercise.

Exercise 27. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under those verbs which are in the active voice, and two lines under those which are in the passive voice (§§ 187, 205):—

Arrows are shot by the archers. The archers are shooting arrows. He is

* Beware of the mistake of saying that the *subject* of the verb in the Active Voice becomes the *object* of the verb in the Passive Voice. A verb in the Passive Voice has no direct object. It does not cease, however, to be a *Transitive Verb*. All ordinary passive verbs are transitive. The *object of an action* need not be expressed by the *grammatical object of a verb*.

running. He is gone. He is spending all the money. The men are come. The town was taken by assault. The troops were being led across the river. The officer was leading the troops across the river.

I shall be blamed for this. I shall be travelling all night. We were travelling all day. The wine was being drunk. The men are drinking beer. The gardener has been mowing the lawn. The money will have been spent in vain. We are losing time. Time is being wasted.

XV. Gender of Nouns.

Preliminary Lesson.— Signification and formation of Genders (§§ 39–46).

Exercise 28. State the gender of each of the following nouns :—

Cow, horse, dog, man, girl, ship, house, Robert, Jane, London, Thames, goose, hen, cock, bird, sheep, pig, boar, fox, uncle, nephew, John, vixen, lass, ox, form, desk, tree, servant, footman, maid, boy, nursemaid, baby, slate, gander, elephant, tiger, lioness, Maria, France, Napoleon, cart, infant, brother, lady, pen, lord, king, sovereign, queen, ruler, judge, author, cousin, sister, mother, aunt, box, speaker, William. The Victory. The Agamemnon. The Maria.

Exercise 29. Give the feminine nouns that correspond to the masculine nouns, and the masculine nouns that correspond to the feminine nouns in the following list :—

Nun. Daughter. Ram. Earl. Duchess. Doe. Boar. Bachelor. Girl. Sister. Drake. Bull. Hind. Aunt. Witch. Nephew. Lady. Sir. Buck. Hart. Empress. Votary. Mistress. Lass. Actor. Governess. Giant. Author. Caterer. Murderess.

Exercise 30. Write down 1. Ten masculine common nouns. 2. Ten masculine proper nouns. 3. Ten feminine common nouns. 4. Ten feminine proper nouns. 5. Ten neuter common nouns. 6. Ten neuter proper nouns. 7. Ten nouns of ambiguous or common gender.

XVI. Parsing.

Preliminary Lesson.—To parse a word you must state 1. to what part of speech, and to what subdivision of that part of speech it belongs ; 2. what the function of the word is, that is, the kind of work that it does in the sentence ; 3. the accidence of the word ; 4. the construction of the word in the sentence.

Examples of Parsing.

"*John's brother has found a shilling.*"

John's is a Proper Noun of the Masculine Gender [because it

is the name of a male person and is that person's own name*]. It is in the Singular Number, and in the Possessive Case depending on (or in the attributive relation to) the noun 'brother' [because it denotes that 'John' possesses something, namely 'brother'].

Brother is a Common Noun of the Masculine Gender [because it denotes a male person, and may denote any other of the same class]. It is in the Singular Number, and is in the Nominative Case because it is the subject of the verb 'has found' [that is, because it stands for the person about whom the verb tells something].

Has found is a Transitive Verb of the Strong Conjugation—(find, found, found). [It is a verb because it tells us something about John's brother, and it is transitive because it denotes an action which is done to some object.] It is in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Present Perfect Tense, and is in the Singular Number and the Third Person to agree with its subject 'brother.' It has 'shilling' for its object.

Shilling is a Common Noun of the Neuter Gender [because it is the name of something which is not a living being, and may be used for any other thing of the same class]. It is in the Singular Number, and is in the Objective Case because it is the object of the transitive verb 'has found' [that is, because it stands for that to which the action denoted by the verb is directed].

'He will please me.'

He is a Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person and Masculine Gender [because it stands for a male person who is neither the speaker nor the person spoken to] in the Singular Number and in the Nominative Case because it is the subject of the verb 'will please' [that is, because it stands for the person about whom the verb tells something].

'Will please' is a transitive verb [because it denotes an action which is directed to an object], of the Weak Conjugation (please, pleased, pleased). It is in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Future Indefinite Tense, and is in the Singular Number and the Third Person to agree with its subject 'he.'

Me is a Personal Pronoun of the First Person and of Common† Gender. [It stands for the speaker without naming him, or her]. It is in the Singular Number, and in the Objective Case because it is the object of the transitive active verb 'will please.'

* When pupils have gained some readiness in parsing, and when parsing is written, such explanations as those in brackets may be omitted; but in oral work, and for beginners they are of the utmost importance.

† Substitute *Masculine* or *Feminine*, if the context shows whether the speaker is a male or a female person.

"*I shall be seen.*"

'**I**' is a Personal Pronoun of the First Person of common* (or ambiguous) gender. It is in the Singular Number, and is in the Nominative Case because it is the subject of the verb 'shall be seen' [that is, stands for the person about whom something is said by means of the verb].

'**Shall be seen**' is a Transitive Verb [because it denotes an action that is directed to an object], in the Passive Voice, Indicative Mood, Future Indefinite Tense, and in the Singular Number and First Person to agree with its subject 'I.'

"*Lend me a shilling.*"

'**Lend**' is a Transitive Verb [because it denotes an action which is done to something], in the Active Voice, Imperative Mood, Plural Number† and Second Person, to agree with its subject 'you' understood.

'**Me**' is in the Objective Case, because it is the Indirect Object of the verb 'Lend' (*See Section* xi).

Exercise 31. Parse all the verbs, nouns, and pronouns in the following sentences, except those in italics :—

The hunters caught a hare. The hunters were chasing hares. The hare was being chased. The house was pulled down. The masons are building a house. Many new houses have been built. He was running away. They called her back. She gave me‡ a shilling. I lent the man‡ a pound. We have heard the news. You have lost the sight. John's sister has told me‡ the news. We saw Henry's cousin yesterday. Mary's frock was torn by the *dog*. The girl's frock will be mended. You will be overtaken by the *storm*. The men will soon have finished the work. She had been bitten by the *dog*. The cat has scratched her. Henry's father will give her‡ a new book. Hand me‡ the bread. Read the letter. Tell me ‡ the news. Go thou and do likewise. Hear ye, Israel.§ Get thee behind me. John,§ hand me‡ the bread.

Exercise 32. Parse the nouns, pronouns, and verbs in Exercises 19, 20, and 22.

XVII. Adjectives of Quality.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use‖ of a Qualitative Adjec-

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* See last note.

† 'You' is always a *grammatical* plural, even when it refers to *one* person. Of course, if the singular 'Thou' is expressed or understood, the verb is singular; but the subject which is usually understood is the plural 'you.'

‡ In parsing this word state that it is in the objective case, because it is the *indirect object* of the verb. (See Section xi, Ex. 19.)

§ Parse this word as a Vocative or Nominative of address.

‖ Carefully guard beginners against the common, but obvious blunder, of saying that 'adjectives denote the *qualities of nouns*.' *Nouns* are *names*, *i.e.*, *words*. In 'a black dog' the adjective 'black' does not mark any quality belonging to the *name* 'dog.' It is the *animal* that is black, and not its name. An adjective is not a 'noun-marking word,' but a 'thing-marking word.'

tive (or Adjective of Quality); Attributive and predicative use of Adjectives (§§ 80–84; 90).

Exercise 33. "*The girls wore smart bonnets.*" 'Smart' is an Adjective of Quality. It shows *of what sort* the 'bonnets' are. It is joined attributively to the noun 'bonnets.'

"*The girls' bonnets are smart.*" Here 'smart' is an Adjective of Quality joined predicatively to the noun 'bonnets.'

Pick out the Adjectives of Quality in the following sentences, and treat each of them in the same way as 'smart' in the above examples :—

He rides a black horse. The bird has white feathers. The bird's feathers are white. Idle boys hate lessons. Ripe fruit is wholesome. Tom's horse is brown. Rude boys are disagreeable. Dogs are faithful. Dogs are faithful animals. Thin ice is dangerous. The poor little bird is dead. Sinful pleasures are often alluring. The girls are ready. He is a ready speaker. The naughty children ate some apples. He is a vulgar little boy. The girl has large black eyes. The cat caught a great black rat. He rode a strong, bony, black horse. He wore a great, heavy, woollen cloak.

XVIII. Adjectives of Quantity.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use of Adjectives of Quantity, or Quantitative Adjectives (§§ 91–94). See Appendix, p. 253.

Examples. "*John bought twelve pears.*" 'Twelve' is an Adjective of Quantity. It tells us *how many* pears we are speaking about.

"*I will give you some money.*" 'Some' is an Adjective of Quantity. It tells us (indefinitely) *how much* money we are speaking about.

Exercise 34. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the Adjectives of Quality, and two lines under the Adjectives of Quantity, and treat each of the latter in the same way as 'twelve' and 'some' in the above sentences.

The naughty, greedy little boy ate twenty pears. The poor woman has many troubles. Great* riches bring much care. I have little† hope of success. My little brother is ill. Many men possess great riches. Hold out both hands. We waited several hours in the cold room. I have no money. Much money brings much care. We travelled all night. Many men love vicious pleasures. Have you any money? Will you have some bread? Few men can resist strong temptation.

XIX. Demonstrative Adjectives or Adjectives of Relation.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use of Demonstrative Adjectives. Different sorts of Demonstrative Adjectives (§ 95).

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* Mind that '*great*' and '*small*' are Adjectives of Quality. They do not tell us *how much* of a thing we are speaking about, but they *describe its size*.

† '*Little*' is used for both purposes, and is therefore sometimes an Adjective of Quality, and sometimes an Adjective of Quantity.

"*Give me that book.*"

'**That**' is a Demonstrative Adjective, or Adjective of Relation. It points out a certain book without describing it. It qualifies the noun 'book.'

"*He lent me his knife.*"

'**His**' is a Possessive Pronominal Adjective or Possessive Adjective Pronoun. It points out a certain knife, without reference to quality or quantity. It qualifies (or is joined attributively to) the noun 'knife.'

Exercise 35. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the Adjectives of Quality, two lines under the Adjectives of Quantity, and three lines under the Adjectives of Relation (or Demonstrative Adjectives), bearing in mind that several adjectives belong (with a slight difference of meaning) sometimes to one class, sometimes to another. (See §§ 92, 166, 169.) Look carefully at the definitions. Indicate what noun each adjective belongs to, or qualifies, by putting the same numeral over both the adjective and the noun, thus :—

1 2 3 1 2 3 4 4

"We heard of the poor old man's sudden death."

Give me that large book. Ring the bell. Bring me my new boots. This boy is idle. These sheep are fat. Look at the second line in this page. She will have the last word. We walk every other day. You will know better one day. No other course is possible. Any man could tell you that. Some people like this loud music. Each child received a penny. Every device has been tried. Either alternative is disagreeable. My apple is ripe. His first attempt was a failure. She is my first cousin. She was my first love. He has but little discretion. He has a large head and little eyes. A little leaven leaveneth the whole lump. A little child might lead him. An enemy hath done this. That last song was capital. Neither version of the story is correct. Those little boys are my cousins. Some * thief has stolen my watch. We had some † beef for dinner. Any * fool might see that. Have you any † money? I have not the least appetite. He spent half a day with me. John is his half brother. Second thoughts are best. We arrived on the second day. I went to see him one day lately. I have but one brother. There was no other way left. Which ‡ wine do you prefer? What ‡ news have you heard? What ‡ nonsense he talks!

XX. Comparison of Adjectives.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study §§ 105–116.

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* Here this word is a *demonstrative* pronominal adjective (or indefinite adjective pronoun).

† Here this word relates to *quantity*.

‡ Mind that Interrogative Pronominal Adjectives (or Interrogative Adjective Pronouns) belong to the class of Adjectives of Relation (or Demonstrative Adjectives).

Exercise 36. Write down the comparative and superlative degrees of the following adjectives, or their substitutes :—

Large, great, high, fierce, lovely, full, tame, rich, happy, handsome, common, merry, near, gay, cold, holy, healthy, bright, big, red, rich, monstrous, winsome, sad, mad, beautiful, fresh, dull, hearty, quarrelsome, blithe, splendid, clever, idle, gentle.

Write down all three degrees of the following adjectives :—

Prettier, rudest, sweetest, justest, gentler, finest, steeper, tenderer, worst, slenderest, duller, gentlest, wittier, slower, tidiest, wealthier, handsomest, sprightlier, mightiest, nastiest, rudest, brightest, crudest, better, more, last.

XXI. Parsing of Adjectives.

Preliminary Lesson.—To parse an adjective state what sort of adjective it is, in what degree of comparison it is, and to what noun it is attached either attributively or predicatively (§§ 89, &c., 84). Lastly, state its three degrees of comparison.

Examples. "*His numerous virtues won much esteem.*"

His :—A Demonstrative (or Pronominal) Adjective. [It *points out* certain virtues, but does not describe or enumerate them.] It is joined* attributively to (*or* qualifies) the noun 'virtues.'

Numerous :—An Adjective of Quality in the Positive Degree. [It *describes* the virtues spoken of.] It is attached attributively to (*or* qualifies) the noun 'virtues.'

Much :—An Adjective of Quantity. [It denotes *how much esteem* is spoken of.] It is in the Positive Degree, and is attached attributively to the noun 'virtues.' (Much, more, most.)

"*These men are richer than those.*"

These :—A Demonstrative Adjective in the Plural Number, joined attributively to the noun 'men.' ['These' *points to* the men, but does not describe or enumerate them.]

Richer :—An Adjective of Quality [it *describes* certain men], in the Comparative Degree, joined predicatively to the noun 'men.' (Rich, richer, richest.)

Those :—A Demonstrative Adjective in the Plural Number, qualifying the noun *men* understood (see § 96).

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* An adjective is often said to 'qualify' a noun. This expression is legitimate only if the phrase 'to qualify a noun' means 'to denote some quality of that for which the noun stands,' or 'to limit the application of a noun,' it does not in the least alter the *meaning* of the noun. (See § 85.) As generally used, it smacks strongly of the blunder of saying that 'an adjective describes the quality of a noun.' If the term is used, therefore, this mistake must be carefully guarded against.

'*Which hand will you have?*"

Which:—A Demonstrative Adjective or Interrogative Adjective Pronoun. [It *points* interrogatively *to* a certain hand, but does not describe it, or refer to its quantity.] It is joined attributively to the noun 'hand.'

Exercise 37. Parse all the adjectives (including the articles) in the following sentences. Those in italics qualify a noun which is understood. Supply the noun when necessary. Attend carefully to those examples where there is a noun in the possessive case, and see which nouns the adjectives qualify (§§ 96, 97).

A. The wisest men are sometimes mistaken. A dense cloud hid the sun. Give me some more meat. Will that little boy have any more fruit? Give me the other volume. He has gained many more prizes than his elder brother. My youngest brother has gained the second prize in his class. Every * one was quiet. Each boy shall have a great piece of cake. That little girl has no milk. My younger sister is ill. Your elder brother lost some money yesterday. Ripe apples are nicer than sour * ones. *That* is the least atonement he can make. Few and brief were the prayers we said. Few men are his superiors. His few remaining acres were sold. Some persons are too hasty. You will know some day or *other*. Some careless person has upset the ink. *These* are my children. Give me the other hand. Here are two books, *which* will you have? That is the ripest pear. *Which* of these books is yours? Where are the others? † John is *the cleverest* ‡ in the class. She is *the prettiest* of all my cousins. I went to see him one day lately. Have you any other sisters? Of these wines I prefer the *red* to the *white*. *The poor* suffer more than *the rich*. Will you have *hot* or cold milk? Which boy is *the cleverest?* Here is bread, will you have *some?* No, I will not have *any*.

B. He keeps a large boys' school. The little girls' frocks were torn. The girls' schools are well managed. The girls' lessons are too long. He is quite a ladies' man. He took a three days' journey. I have done a good day's work. I have had a whole day's anxiety. He teaches at the large boys' school. The elder boys' behaviour was excellent. She wore a large man's hat on her head. The large linen-draper's shop at the corner is on fire. The tall corporal's hat was knocked off. He fitted a Chubb's patent lock to his desk. He cropped the black horse's tail. He bought the handsomest lady's dress in the shop.

Exercise 38. When *this* and *that* are not attached to a noun expressed or understood, they must be parsed as Demonstrative *Pronouns* (not as Demonstrative *Adjectives*), of the Neuter Gender, and in the Nominative or Objective case (§ 145).

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* An adjective may be attached to a pronoun as well as to a noun. 'One' is an Indefinite Substantive Pronoun.

† 'Others' (in the plural) is a Substantive Pronoun, which is here qualified by the demonstrative adjective 'the.'

‡ An article always belongs to some *noun* expressed or understood. When no noun can be conveniently supplied with the adjective, the adjective itself must be regarded as a substantive (§ 98).

Parse the words in italics in the following sentences :—

This quite altered our plans. *That* was a great disappointment to us. How dare you tell me *that?* I cannot undertake *this*. I can never believe *that*. *This* is the very coinage of your brain. He does not frighten me by *that*. I shall be content with *that*.

Exercise 39. The demonstratives 'this,' 'that,' and 'it' may stand, 1. for a noun; 2. for an infinitive mood or gerund with its adjuncts; 3. for the act or fact stated in a sentence; 4. for the gerund or infinitive that denotes such an act or fact in an abstract form. 'It' often stands for an infinitive mood, a gerund, or a sentence that is *going to be used*. 'This' and 'that' are sometimes employed in a similar manner.

State clearly what the words in italics stand for in the following sentences :—

There is a pen, give *it* to me. I hoped to get here before noon, but I could not manage *it*. Our duty is to obey the dictates of conscience, however difficult *it* may be. To comply with your request is difficult, if *it* be not absolutely impossible. He said that the matter was self-evident, but I could not see *it*. We all knew that the attempt was hopeless, but he would not believe *it*. I will help you if *it* is possible. I will call upon you to-morrow if *it* is convenient. *It* would have been better for him if he had never known that man. *It* grieved him to lose so much money. *It* is impossible to tell what the result will be. *It* is of no use trying to help him. I think *it* best to hold my tongue about the matter. *It* vexes me that he should act in this way. *It* is very likely that he will come to-morrow. I think *it* very strange that he did not tell me. If you do not give up these bad habits, you will suffer for *it*. He thought of enlisting as a soldier, but *this* I would not allow. He asked me to surrender my claim, but I *would* not consent to *that*. Read these letters to your father; *that* will amuse him. His father threatened to disinherit him, and *that* brought him to his senses.

XXII. Abstract Nouns.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and formation of Abstract Nouns (§§ 32, 33, 314, 329).

Exercise 40. Give the abstract nouns which correspond to the following adjectives :—

Pure, simple, good, bad, worthy, splendid, just, meek, temperate, large, wide, broad, slow, quick, red, blue, sour, sharp, sweet, distant, near, soft, able, innocent, durable, brilliant, merry, brief, white, long, able, humble, popular, obstinate, wicked, pious, poor, sad, infirm, jovial, silent, wise, prudent, abundant, useful, jealous, monstrous, dead.

B. Give the abstract nouns derived from the following nouns :—

Friend, son, father, man, child, king, martyr, priest, widow, relation, infant, sovereign, regent, leader, magistrate, mayor, sheriff, captain, colonel.

C. Form Abstract Nouns (not ending in *-ing*) corresponding to the following verbs :—

Offend ; condescend ; derange ; arrange ; complete ; protect ; suspend ; deride ; conceal ; steal ; deceive ; invent ; invert ; destroy ; multiply ; crown ; weigh ; hate ; justify ; move ; sing ; abstract ; advance ; measure ; erase ; proceed ; depress ; interrogate ; deviate ; degrade ; displace ; debase ; contract ; dissect ; convene ; exact ; please ; fix ; absolve ; treat ; depart ; seize ; thieve ; steal.

D. Give the adjectives or nouns from which the following abstract nouns are formed :—

Fickleness ; suppleness ; height ; depth ; acidity ; patience ; dependence ; impertinence ; elegance ; uprightness ; strength ; weakness ; mortality ; durability ; grandeur ; width ; death ; wisdom ; infirmity ; amplitude ; convenience ; piety ; humility ; brevity ; rascality ; mayoralty ; shrievalty ; boredom ; girlhood ; nobility ; stupidity ; sleepiness ; greenness ; rigidity ; ductility ; sonority ; prosperity ; magnanimity ; elevation ; candour ; insipidity ; heroism ; breadth ; senility ; health ; youth ; dearth ; ponderosity ; legibility ; vacancy ; discretion ; enormity ; profundity ; contrition ; kinship ; worship ; theft ; mirth ; bondage ; homage ; peerage.

E. Give the verbs from which the following Abstract Nouns are derived :—

Intrusion : reflection ; estrangement ; seclusion ; injection ; thought ; flight ; thrift ; growth ; tilth ; decision ; coercion ; defence ; conception ; adaptation ; derision ; judgment ; addition ; composition ; declension ; pressure ; action ; suction ; laughter.

Exercise 41. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the nouns used in their *abstract* sense, and two lines under those used in their *concrete* sense, and explain the difference of meaning in each case :—

I admire nobility of character. He aspired to enter the ranks of the nobility. The sculptures over the porch are very fine. Sculpture is one of the fine arts. He has the gift of poetry. Some poetry is hardly worth reading. That is the nature of the animal. The vast field of nature is open to our gaze. Can you tell me the age of that child ? This has been the case in all ages. The steeple is of immense height. We soon reached the summit of the height. He made a solitude and called it peace. Nothing relieved the solitude of his existence. Painting was his chief pursuit. I bought a splendid painting yesterday. These alms-houses are the refuge of old age and poverty.

XXIII. Adverbs.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use of Adverbs. **Adverbs of Manner** answer the question 'How?' **Adverbs of Degree** show 'to what degree or extent' the meaning of a verb, adjective, or other adverb is to be taken. **Adverbs of Time** answer the questions 'When?' 'How long?' 'How often?' **Adverbs of Place** answer the questions 'Where?' 'Whence?' 'Whither?'

Adverbs are usually said to modify* the verb, adjective, or adverb to which they are attached (§§ 259–265).

Examples.

"*The mountain rises abruptly from the plain.*"

Abruptly is a word that shows *how* the mountain rises (or answers the question 'How does the mountain rise?'). Therefore it is an Adverb of Manner, modifying the verb 'rises.'

"*That is too bad.*"

Too is a word which shows to what degree 'that' is bad; or answers the question 'how bad?' Therefore it is an Adverb of Degree, modifying the adjective 'bad.'

"*He came yesterday.*"

Yesterday is a word that shows *when* he came (or answers the question 'When did he come?'). Therefore it is an Adverb of Time, modifying the verb 'came.'

"*We seldom see him.*"

Seldom answers the question '*How often* do we see him?' Therefore it is an Adverb of Time modifying the verb 'see.'

"*My uncle lives there.*"

There shows the place where my uncle lives (or answers the question 'Where does my uncle live?'). It is an Adverb of Place, modifying the verb 'lives.'

Exercise 42. Deal as in the above examples with each of the Adverbs in the following sentences:—

I saw him yesterday. John often writes to us. We went thither. They soon returned. Mary plays beautifully. We lay down to sleep. Now attend to me. My friends live yonder. He went away. They rode along together. The troops fought splendidly. She is upstairs. The children played indoors. I will go thither directly. He went straightway. He always contradicts me.

* To 'modify' a verb is to state some *mode* or *condition*, in or under which the action denoted by the verb is performed.

He walked backwards. Stand so. I placed my hand thus. You speak too rapidly. He is very learned. I am almost penniless. The bird is quite dead. I am much obliged to you. He was an extremely wicked man. I am very much obliged to you. We have got thus far on our journey. Oh! I am so tired. Do not tell so many stories. He is far too extravagant. I am very much surprised. They very soon returned. The project was monstrously foolish.

Exercise 43. Make half a dozen sentences to illustrate the use of each sort of adverb contained in the preceding examples.

Exercise 44. State the Degree of Comparison of each of the adverbs in italics in the following sentences, and point out what verb, adjective, or adverb it modifies (§§ 274-276).

John reads *well*, but Thomas reads *better*. He is *most* careful in his conduct. He acted *more* prudently than his friend. He walked *farther* than I did. He works *harder* than ever. They get up very *early*. I get up *earlier* than you. You write *worse* than your brother. He *often* comes here. He comes *oftener* than ever. He is *less* restless to-day. He is *more* composed. He was the *least* alarmed of all. He is *most* attentive to his work. My brother came *last*. I would *rather* not go. I would *sooner* die. The children were here *soonest*. That poor man is the *worst* hurt.

Exercise 45. Make ten sentences containing adverbs in the comparative degree, and ten containing adverbs in the superlative degree.

Parsing of Adverbs. To parse an Adverb state to which class of adverbs it belongs, what its degree of comparison is (if it admits of comparison), giving the three degrees, and what verb, adjective, or adverb it modifies.

Exercise 46. Parse the Adverbs in Exercises 42 and 44.

XXIV. Nouns used Adverbially.

Preliminary Lesson.—A noun in the objective case with an adjective or some equivalent phrase, or even standing by itself, often does duty for an adverb. The noun should be parsed as being in the Adverbial Objective, modifying (either singly, or when taken with its adjective) some verb or adjective (§§ 370, 3; 267).

Exercise 47. Parse the nouns in italics in the following sentences :—

He travelled all *night*. Many a *time* have I played with him. I have seen him many *times*. He comes here four *times* a week. That happened a *year* ago. I shall see you next *week*. He slept *all night*. *Day* by day we magnify Thee. He comes bothering me *day* after day. He turned his head another *way*. This is many *degrees* better than that. He is a *year* older than I am. I

could not come a *day* sooner. The town is ten *miles* distant. We travelled *day* and *night*. He came forth bound *hand* and *foot*. He arrived *post-haste*.

XXV. Adjectives used Adverbially, and Adverbs reduced to the form of Adjectives.

Preliminary Lesson.—Many adjectives, especially those of Quantity, are used as substantives, it being impossible to supply any particular noun with them. These (like nouns) are often used with an adverbial force. They once had the dative inflexion. It is better now to parse them as simple adverbs. When they are used as subjects or objects of verbs, or after prepositions, they should be parsed as *substantival adjectives*, or (more simply) as *substantives*.

On the other hand, many adverbs which once ended in *-e* have lost that inflexion, and become identical in form with adjectives.

"*Much has been revealed, but more remains behind.*" Here '*much*' and '*more*' are substantives, the subjects of the verbs that follow them.

"*I do not much admire him.*" "*He is not much happier.*" Here '*much*' is an adverb, modifying (1) a verb, (2) an adjective.

"*He is no better.*" Here '*no*' is an adverb modifying the adverb 'better.'

"*He has not much money; his brother has more.*" Here '*much*' is an adjective qualifying 'money,' and '*more*' is an adjective qualifying 'money' understood.

Exercise 48. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the *adjectives proper*, the *substantival adjectives*, and the *adverbs* :—

I have *enough*. I gave him *all* I had. In *general* I approve of his proceedings. *Much* depends upon his answer. He knows *more* than he tells. Here is some wine, will you have a *little?* He told me *less* than his brother. Do not let us hear *more* of that. You know *most* about it. The *long* and the *short* of it is, that I had my pains for nothing. I will follow you through *thick* and *thin*. He is my *best* friend. I did my *best*. He is the *best* dressed man in the room. He slept *all* night. He has lost *all*. *All* bloodless lay the untrodden snow. That is *all* nonsense. He is *all* powerful here. We have *much* cause for thankfulness. He is *much* worse to-day. *Much* remains to be done. I am *much* happier. He has *more* ability than his brother. He is *more* contented. I could hear *no more*. He is *no* * wiser than before. I have *no* ink.

* 'No,' as an adverb, may be taken as the simple adverb 'na' = never (A.S.).

He shows but *little* gratitude. We expect not a *little* from him. He is but *little* better. That is a *most* lovely prospect. Nobody *else** was there. I have not meat *enough*.† I have *enough* and to spare.

He is *less* restless than he was yesterday. He ran *all* round the park. You know *best*. Do your *best*. The *future* is hidden from our gaze. In *future* times he will be famous. That decision was *right*. He cut *right* through the helmet. Hear the *right*, O Lord. We have a choice between *good* and *ill*. *Ill* weeds thrive apace. The house is *ill* built. The earth turns *round*. He wears a *round* hat. Such a *round* of pleasures is wearisome. That is a *pretty* picture. He is *pretty* sure of the prize. He was a *very* thunderbolt of war. You are *very* kind. That is the *very least* you can do. Do not take *more* trouble. He is *more* to blame than I am. You are *very much* in fault. I cannot say *more*. I ask for *no*‡ *more*, and I will take *no less*. I will take one *more* § glass. He bought two *more* loaves. Will you take some‖ *more* wine. I will not take *any more*. Take *no more*¶ trouble. He has *no more*** sense than a goose. I heard *all*. I heard *all* the speech. The corn was scattered *all* over the yard. He sailed *all* round the world. *Enough* has been done. They have money *enough*. He is *like*†† my brother. He swore *like* a trooper. I ne'er shall look upon his *like* again. I am your *equal*. We were *just* starting. He was discoursing about the *true* and the *just*. There is but a step from the *sublime* to the *ridiculous*. We are *near* neighbours. Come *near* the fire.

I will accept nothing *less*.‡‡ We heard nothing *more* of him. He was *more* frightened than hurt. Whoever is *most* diligent will meet with *most* success. He is not *any more* diligent than he was before. He is *no* wiser than I. He is *no more* contented than he used to be. I cannot write *any better*. He is a *better* writer than I am. I have heard a *little* about that affair, let me hear *some more*. You must take me for *better* or *worse*. The *more* part knew not wherefore they were come together. *The* more *the* merrier (§ 265, 5). She is *very* tall. The cry did knock against my *very* heart. I did my *best*. He is my *best* friend. I love John best.

XXVI. Prepositions.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use of Prepositions. Relations which they indicate. Words which they join (§§ 277, 278).

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* 'Else' is always an adverb.

† The inflected adjective *genóh* is commonly placed after the noun in Anglo-Saxon.

‡ 'No' is here an adverb modifying 'more.' An adjective used as a substantive may still be modified by an adverb.

§ In cases of this kind *more* is usually regarded as an adjective, equivalent to *additional*. Mätzner (vol. iii. p. 272) is inclined to regard *more*, when used with numerals and pronouns, as having been originally an *adverb* (= Lat. *insuper, amplius*). Compare the German *noch* and the French *encore*. Thus 'one word *more*' (*Shaksp. Temp.* i. 2) would be equivalent to 'one word *further*' (*ib.* iii. 2).

‖ 'Some' is never used as an adverb.

¶ That is, either 'no *additional* trouble,' or 'no trouble *in addition*.' The inflected adjective *múra* or *mæra* is found after *nán* in A.S. (*Mätzner*, iii. p. 260).

** Here 'more' measures the whole quantity of 'sense,' and therefore is a quantitative adjective attached to the noun, and 'no' (=A.S. 'ná,' 'never') is an adverb modifying 'more.'

†† When 'like' denotes *personal* resemblance, it is an adjective. When it denotes that one *action* resembles another, it is an adverb.

‡‡ This word is an adjective qualifying the substantive 'nothing,' 'nothing inferior in amount.' The next example is different; 'more' is equivalent to 'further.'

Examples.

A. "*I see a mouse on the floor.*' '**On**' is a preposition governing the noun 'floor' in the objective case, and joining it to the noun 'mouse.' It shows the relation of one *thing* (mouse) to *another* (floor).

B. "*He leaped over the wall.*" '**Over**' is a preposition governing the noun 'wall' in the objective case, and joining it to the verb 'leaped.' It shows the relation of an *act* (leaping) to a *thing* (wall).

C. "*He is afraid of me.*" '**Of**' is a preposition governing the pronoun 'me' in the objective case, and joining it to the adjective 'afraid.' It shows the relation of an *attribute* (afraid) to a *person* (me).

Exercise 49. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences in the same way as in the above examples:—

Pick up the books on the floor. I saw Jane in the kitchen. My father lives in London. People in trouble often go to him. He works at the factory. I am fond of music. The tub is full of water. I am anxious about his safety. A blow on the head knocked him down. We saw the men in armour. Grief at the loss of his money turned him crazy. The love of money is the root of all evil. Dick rode to York. Do not sit on the table. Do not touch the books on the table. I am weary of work. He spoke of me. He spoke to me at the close of the meeting. We arrived the day before yesterday. We shall start the day after to-morrow. He shrank from the danger. I have in my hand a letter from my father.

Exercise 50. Make ten sentences in which a preposition shows the relation of a *thing* to a *thing*; ten in which it shows the relation of an *action* to a *thing*; and ten in which it shows the relation of an *attribute* to a *thing*.

XXVII. Adverbs and Prepositions.

Preliminary Lesson.—The same word is often used both as an adverb and as a preposition. When it governs a noun or pronoun, it is a preposition. When there is no noun or pronoun governed by it, it is an adverb (§§ 279, 284).

Exercise 51. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences:—

He got up *behind*. There is a garden *behind* the house. Do not lag *behind*. He departed *before* my arrival. I told you all that *before*. Run *round* the table. The earth turns *round*. I rode *inside* the omnibus. He rode *outside*. He ran *after* me. That comes *after*. The box was painted *within* and *without*. She stayed *within* the house. Come *along*. We walked *along* the road. We walked *by* the river. The storm passed *by*. I will come *by* and *by*. He cut a piece *off* the loaf. The stick is too long; cut a piece *off*. "Three thousand

ducats we freely cope your courteous pains *withal*."* "Nothing comes amiss, so money come *withal*." "I must wait and watch *withal*." "Her cause and yours, I'll perfect him *withal*."

Exercise 52. Find a dozen words which may be used either as Adverbs or as Prepositions, and make sentences to illustrate their use.

XXVIII. The Infinitive Mood.

Preliminary Lesson.—A. Nature and use of the Simple Infinitive (§§ 194, 195). **Shall, will, may,** and **do** as notional and as auxiliary verbs (§ 184). **Must**† and **can** are always notional verbs.

Examples.

"*I will never forget you.*"

'**Will**':—A defective (notional) verb; in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Present Tense; and in the Singular Number and First Person, to agree with its subject '*I*.'

'**Forget**':—A Transitive Verb in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) Infinitive Mood, depending on (*or* the object of) the verb '*will*.'

"*Thou shalt not steal.*"

'**Shalt**' is a defective (notional) verb; in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Present Tense; and in the Singular Number and the Second Person, to agree with its subject '*thou*.'

'**Steal**' is a Transitive Verb, in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) Infinitive Mood, depending on (or governed by) the verb '*shalt*.'

"*You may go.*"

'**May**' is a defective (notional) verb, in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Present Tense; and in the Plural Number, and the Second Person to agree with its subject 'you.'

'**Go**' is an Intransitive Verb, in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) Infinitive Mood, depending on (or governed by) the verb '*may*.'

"*He did his duty.*"

'**Did**' is a notional Transitive Verb, in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Past Indefinite Tense, and in the Singular Number and the Third Person to agree with its subject '*He*.'

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* 'Withal,' when used as a preposition, never precedes the word which it governs, but is placed at the end of the sentence.

† The so-called Potential Mood is a perfectly unnecessary invention.

"*I shall soon depart.*"

Here '**shall**' is an auxiliary (not a *notional*) verb. The simple infinitive '**depart**' depends upon it in the same manner as in the preceding examples. The two verbs 'shall' and 'depart' may be parsed separately, or the compound phrase 'shall depart' may be parsed as the future tense of the verb 'depart.'

"*He will come presently.*"

Here '**will**' is a mere auxiliary of the future tense. The notion of volition is entirely lost sight of. It may be treated like '*shall*' in the last example.

"*You do assist the storm.*" "*Did you hear the rain?*"

In these examples '**do**' and '**did**' are mere auxiliaries. 'You do assist' does not differ in the least in sense from 'you assist.' The verb does not itself constitute an *emphatic* form. The compound form is emphatic only when an *emphasis is laid upon the* '*do*.' But then any form is emphatic when it is emphasized.

"*He does this that he may vex me.*"

Here '**may**' is a mere auxiliary of the Subjunctive Mood, and is in the Subjunctive Mood itself. The notion of *power* or *permission* has altogether vanished. It does not *assert* that *he is able* or *is permitted* to vex me.

Exercise 53. Parse all the verbs in the following sentences, and specify in the case of the finite verbs whether they are used as notional or as auxiliary verbs:—

We can dance. You may go. You might have gone an hour ago. I shall stay. I will go with you. You must go directly. He could not reply. He would not come when I called him. You shall not have it. He shall not know of it. I dare not go back. He will soon return. You need not stay. He durst not go home. I could leap over that wall once. They would keep on making a noise. You need not be alarmed. "You do * assist the storm." The cry did* knock against my very heart. You would not have my help when you might. I will do my best. He did what he could. I cannot do what I will. That boy shall be made to hold his tongue. Does your father know of this? May I come in? Thou shalt not steal. We will never yield to threats. When shall † you see your brother? Wherewithal shall a young man cleanse his way? I did not call yesterday lest I might seem intrusive. He says that he will not come. He said that he would not come. He said that he did not choose to come.

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* When 'do' is a mere auxiliary (whether emphatic or unemphatic) it may be parsed separately, or else taken with the dependent infinitive, and the compound form may be parsed in the same way as the simple tense for which it is a substitute. Thus: 'Did knock' may be treated as equivalent to 'knocked.' See the preceding examples.

† See § 210.

Preliminary Lesson.—B. Nature and use of the gerundial infinitive, or infinitive with 'to' (§§ 194, 196). As the subject or object of another verb it does the work of a substantive. When it denotes the purpose or cause of an action or state, it does the work of an adverb.

The neuter pronoun 'it' is often used as a temporary or provisional subject or object, to show that an infinitive is coming, and to indicate its construction.

"*It is useless to make the attempt.*"

'**It**' is a Neuter Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person, in the Singular Number and Nominative Case, forming the temporary subject of the verb 'is.'

'**To make**':— A Transitive Verb in the Active Voice, and in the Present Indefinite Tense of the Infinitive Mood, forming the real subject of the verb 'is,' and governing 'attempt' in the objective case.

"*He thinks it better not to come.*" Here 'it' is the *temporary object* of the verb 'thinks,' and the infinitive 'to come' is the *real object.*

"*He ran to meet me.*" Here 'to meet' is a transitive verb in the Present Indefinite Tense of the Infinitive Mood, Active Voice, used with the force of an adverb modifying the verb 'ran.'

Exercise 54. Parse the verbs in italics and the word 'it' in the following sentences in the way indicated above :—

To obey is better than sacrifice. *To work* hard is the way to succeed. *It* is useless *to ask* him. *It* is easy *to see* that. We found *it* advisable *to return.* He hopes *to hear* from you soon. He dislikes *to be kept* waiting. He came *to pay* me some money. He did his best *to ruin* me. I am delighted *to see** you. He is anxious *to do** his duty. The water is not fit *to drink.** I am happy *to find** you so much better. They are come *to stay* with us. We found *it* impossible *to go* on. I am glad *to hear** it. I shall be sorry *to leave.** He is too clever *to make** such a mistake. Such a fellow is not fit *to live.** The boys had a long task *to do.* I was not prepared *to hear* that news. The master called the boy *to say* his lesson. She was overjoyed *to hear** of her son's return. He was rude enough *to contradict** me. I am sorry *to hear** that. Help me *to carry* this. We went up to the man *to ask* our way.

Exercise 55. Make ten sentences in which a gerundial infinitive is the subject of a verb ; ten in which it is the object of a verb ; and ten in which it does the work of an adverb.

* In these cases the gerundial infinitive does the work of an adverb, and modifies the preceding adjective. Sometimes it expresses the *cause* of the state denoted by the adjective.

XXIX. Gerunds and Participles.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study §§ 197–202.

Exercise 56. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the Abstract Nouns in *-ing;* two lines under the Gerunds ; three lines under the imperfect (Active) participles :—

Seeing * is believing. He went to see the hunting of the snark. I see a man riding on horseback. I like reading. I like reading history. The excessive reading of novels is injurious. He hates lying. A lying witness ought to be punished. In keeping Thy commandments there is great reward. His conduct is in keeping with his professions. We arrived there first through taking a short cut. We fell in with a ship sailing to America. He is delighted at having succeeded † in his design. We were late in consequence of having lost† our way. He was angry at my going away. No good can come of your doing that. Oblige me by all leaving the room. On some opposition being made he withdrew his demand. I lay a thinking.‡ Forty and six years was this temple in building. We started before the rising of the sun. By sedulously doing his duty he gained the approbation of all. Quitting the forest, we advanced into the open plain. There was a great deal of shouting and clapping of hands. My noble partner you greet with great prediction of noble having. By the pricking of my thumbs, something wicked this way comes. He died in consequence of pricking his hand with a poisoned dagger. He strode up the hall bowing right and left to his guests. "You do draw my spirits from me with new lamenting § ancient oversights" (*Shaksp.*).

XXX. Parsing of Participles.

Preliminary Lesson.—Participles proper. Participles used as ordinary Qualitative Adjectives. Participles used absolutely (§§ 201 ; 202 ; 282 ; 370, 5).

"*Fanned by the wind, the fire blazed fiercely.*"

'Fanned' is the Perfect (or Past) Participle of the verb 'fan,' qualifying the noun 'fire,' to which it is joined attributively.

"*My honoured master bade me tell you this.*"

'Honoured' is the Perfect Participle of the verb 'honour,' used as an Adjective of Quality, qualifying the noun 'master.'

"*Smiling faintly, he pressed my hand.*"

'Smiling' is the Imperfect Active Participle of the verb 'smile,' qualifying the pronoun 'he.'

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* When the verbal noun in *-ing* does not govern an object it may be treated as a simple abstract noun.

† This must be treated as a compound gerund. It is impossible to construct the abstract noun in *-ing* with a past participle.

‡ Here 'a' is a preposition (= at *or* in). 'Thinking' had better be taken in such constructions as the Abstract Noun in *-ing*.

§ There is here a confusion between the Abstract Noun and the Gerund.

"*Considering all things, he has done very well.*"

'Considering' is the Imperfect Active Participle of the verb 'consider,' used absolutely (§ 282). 'Things' is a noun in the objective case, the object of the transitive participle 'considering.'

"*Hail, smiling Morn.*"

'Smiling' is the Imperfect Active Participle of the verb 'smile,' used as an ordinary Qualitative Adjective, joined attributively to the noun 'Morn.'

Exercise 57. Parse the Participles in the following sentences :—

Hope deferred maketh the heart sick. He bought a deferred annuity. Smiling scornfully, he strode into the circle. Look at that smiling villain. Generally speaking he dines at home. Considering your age, you have done very well. I caught sight of the thief climbing in at the window. A falcon, towering in her pride of place, was by a mousing owl hawked at and killed. Accoutred as I was, I plunged in. Being apprised of our approach, the whole neighbourhood came out to meet their minister, dressed in their fine clothes, and preceded by a pipe and tabor. The general rode in front, mounted on a splendid charger. A wounded spirit who can bear? "Why rather, Sleep, liest thou in smoky cribs, upon uneasy pallets stretching thee, and hushed with buzzing night flies to thy slumber, than in the perfumed chambers of the great." Barring accidents, we will be with you to-morrow.

Exercise 58. Study § 214, and separate the following sentences into two groups, one containing those in which the verb *be* and the perfect participle form a tense of the passive voice,* the other containing those in which the participle is a mere qualitative adjective :—

The ship was built by contract. The ship was built of iron. He was stretched upon the rack. He was stretched upon his bed. The string is stretched too tight. The captives were already slain. They were slain by order of the captain. The poor man is badly hurt. The poor man was hurt. The troops were surprised by the enemy. I was surprised by his behaviour. I am surprised that you do not see that. The prisoner was starved to death. The children are famished.

XXXI. Interrogative and Negative Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—The elements of an Interrogative sentence are related to each other in the same way as those of the declarative sentence which would be its complete answer. Compare 'Did you hear?' and 'I did hear';† 'Who told you so?' and 'He told me so'; 'Whom did you meet?' and 'I met John,' &c., 'Where do you live?' and 'I live there,' &c. Use of the verb 'Do.'

* In these we get a statement of the *actual doing* of a certain act, in the second class we get a statement of the results of the act.

† 'Did' and 'hear' may be parsed separately, or taken together as equivalent to 'heard.'

Exercise 59. Give the complete sentences which are answers to the following questions, and then parse all the words in each:—

Are you happy? Did you say so? Have you any money? Did your brother do that? Does your sister sing well? Will your father return to-morrow? Shall you be afraid to go? (See § 210.) Will you meet me there to-morrow? Did the man go away? Have the boys hurt themselves?

Exercise 60. Take the answers to the preceding questions, and turn them into the negative form.

Exercise 61. Parse the verbs and the interrogative pronouns and adverbs in the following sentences (§§ 152-154; 270).

[In the first few sentences (*s*) is put after the subject and (*o*) after the object of the verb, when it is an interrogative pronoun, and the same numeral is placed after an interrogative pronoun and the preposition that governs it, and after an interrogative adverb and the word that it modifies; and (*a*) is placed after those interrogative pronouns (or pronominal adjectives) which qualify the nouns that they precede.]

Who (*s*) called me? What (*o*) did you say? Which (*a*) way is the shortest? What (*o*) did you eat for supper? On what (*a*) day do you set out? What (1) do you hope for (1)? Whom (2) are you writing to (2)? Where (3) do you live (3)? How (4) far (4) did you walk?

What comes next? Which boy made that noise? What author do you like best? Whom are you waiting for? Whom did you see? On what day do you set out? Where did you find that book? Whither are you going? Whose * pen is this? What happened yesterday?

What ails you? In which house does your uncle live? What poet's writings please you most? On what day do you set out? When † will you come? How † did you do that? How † many persons were present? How † often do you write home? Why † do you say that? How † soon will you come? Where ‡ are you going to? Where ‡ do you come from?

Write answers to all the questions in this exercise in full, and then turn these answers into the negative form.

XXXII. Imperative Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study § 191.

"*Go thou and do likewise.*"

'Go' is an intransitive verb in the Active Voice, Imperative Mood, Second Person Singular, to agree with its subject 'thou.'

* Parse 'whose' as an interrogative pronoun of common gender, in the possessive case depending on the noun 'pen.'

† Mind that an interrogative adverb modifies either the verb of the sentence in which it occurs, or some adjective or adverb.

‡ In cases like this, 'where' should be taken as doing duty for an interrogative pronoun, governed by the preposition 'to' or 'from.'

'**Do**' is parsed in the same way, except that it agrees with a subject 'thou' understood.

"*Let me see that.*"

'**Let**' is a transitive verb in the Active Voice, Imperative Mood, and in the second person plural, to agree with its subject 'you' understood.*

'**See**' is a transitive verb in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) infinitive mood depending on (or governed by) the verb 'let.'

'**Me**' is in the objective case, governed by 'let.'

Exercise 62. Parse all the words in the following sentences:—

Let me go. Come hither, boys? † Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar. Let him see it. Let us be spared this annoyance. Let us pray. Let me be cautious in the business. Do be quiet, boys.

XXXIII. Relative or Conjunctive Pronouns.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study §§ 144—164.

"*He is a man who is beloved by everybody.*"

'**Who**' is a Relative Pronoun, of the Masculine Gender, in the Singular Number and of the Third Person, to agree with its antecedent 'man.' It is in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb 'is beloved.' It joins the clause 'who is beloved by all' to the noun 'man.'

"*That is the lady whose husband you met yesterday.*"

'**Whose**' is a Relative Pronoun of the Feminine Gender in the Singular Number and of the Third Person, to agree with its antecedent 'lady.' It is in the Possessive Case depending ‡ on (or qualifying) the noun 'husband.' It joins the clause 'whose husband you met yesterday' to the noun 'lady.'

"*Here is the man whom you wished to see.*"

Here '**whom**' is in the objective case, the object of the verb 'to see.'

"*You have not brought me the book that I asked you for.*"

'**That**' is a Relative Pronoun of the Neuter Gender, in the Singular Number and of the Third Person, to agree with its antecedent 'book.' It is in the objective case, governed by the preposition 'for.' It joins the clause 'that I asked you for' to the noun 'book.'

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* 'You' is always a *grammatical* plural.

† Parse 'boys' as a Vocative, or Nominative of Address.

‡ If 'whose' be treated as the possessive case of a substantive pronoun, it must be parsed like a noun in the possessive If 'whose' be regarded as on a par with *my, our, his*, &c., it must be dealt with as an adjective.

The construction of a relative clause is word for word the same as that of the clause which results when a demonstrative pronoun, or the antecedent noun is substituted for the relative. Thus 'That I asked you for' is like 'I asked you for it (or the book)': 'Whose husband you met yesterday' is like 'you met her husband yesterday.'

Exercise 63. Parse all the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences, and test the construction by substituting demonstratives for the relatives as in the above examples :—

The man whom you met is my brother. The artist who painted that picture died last year. I never saw the man whom you speak of. Where is the pen which I gave you? I who am poorer than you are, am contented. Thou, who wast my friend and guide, hast forsaken me. You, who have done the damage, must repair it. We who are well off should pity and help the poor. He is a man whose appearance is prepossessing. The boys whose work is finished may go out to play. He that is down need fear no fall. I will show you the horse which I bought yesterday. The picture which pleased you so much was painted by my brother. You have not brought me the volume that I asked for. He is the very man that I was speaking of. Their sorrows shall be multiplied that hasten after another God. It is that that grieves me. This that you tell me is incredible. "Why, Harry, do I tell thee of my foes, which art my near'st and dearest enemy?" "I am that very duke which was thrust from Milan." "Whosoever * hath, to him shall be given." "Blessed is he whosoever shall not be offended in Me." He doth sin that doth belie the dead. Whose hatred is covered by deceit, his wickedness shall be showed before the whole congregation. They are but faint-hearted whose courage fails in time of danger. He to-day that sheds his blood with me shall be my brother. 'This is the priest all shaven and shorn, that married the man all tattered and torn, that kissed the maiden all forlorn, that milked the cow with the crumpled horn, that tossed the dog that worried the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.'

Exercise 64. The antecedent of the neuter relative 'which' is often the fact stated in a previous sentence, or the (implied) gerund or infinitive which expresses that act or fact in an abstract manner, as, "The king's two sons are stolen away and fled, which (namely, the fact that the king's two sons are stolen away and fled) puts upon them suspicion of the deed." State clearly what '*which*' stands for in the following sentences :—

He promised to follow my advice, which was the best thing he could do. We studied hard all the morning, after which we went for a walk. "And, which is more than all these boasts can be, I am beloved of Hermia." "I see thee still, and on thy blade and dudgeon gouts of blood, which was not so before." "Thou didst smile. which raised in me an undergoing stomach (*i.e. courage to endure*)."

Exercise 65. Supply (and parse) the relative pronouns which are omitted in the following sentences (see § 164).

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* The parsing of these compound relatives does not differ from that of the simple relatives. They should be described as *compound*, or *indefinite relatives*.

Pay me the money you owe me. You have not sent the goods I bought yesterday. Have you received the money I sent you? That is the place I went to. You are the very man I was looking for. "I have a mind presages me such thrift, that I should questionless be fortunate." That is not the way I came. Those are the very words he used. Is the task I set you finished yet? He is not the man I expected.

Make a dozen sentences in which a suppressed relative may be supplied.

Exercise 66. When 'which' accompanies and qualifies a noun, it should be parsed as a 'Conjunctive Pronominal Adjective.' It then generally refers to the '*general sense*' of the last sentence, but has no special antecedent in place of which it stands. Parse 'which' in the following sentences:—

I may be detained longer than I expect, in which case do not wait for me. I hope you will stay till Tuesday, on which day I expect my brother. He made a humble confession, by which means he averted his father's displeasure.

Exercise 67. Supply the antecedents which are understood in the following examples:—

Who steals my purse, steals trash. Who was the thane, lives yet. Whom we raise we will make fast. I may neither choose whom I would, nor refuse whom I dislike. And whom he strikes, his cruel tushes slay. Whoever said that, told a falsehood. "Whosesoever sins ye remit, they are remitted." I dread what * is coming. I hear what you are saying. That is not what I sent you for. You are telling me what is incredible. I cannot consent to † what you ask. That is just what I cannot understand. You have not done what you promised. Have you found what you were looking for? What astonished me most was his imprudence. What pleases you will please me.

XXXIV. Relative (or Conjunctive) Adverbs.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study §§ 262—265.

Conjunctive adverbs modify a verb, adjective, or adverb in the clause which they introduce, and join that clause to the predicate of the principal clause.

If a conjunctive adverb is equivalent to a relative pronoun preceded by a preposition (§ 406) it joins its clause to the antecedent noun.

Exercise 68. Parse the conjunctive adverbs in the following sentences:—

* Parse '*what*' as a neuter Relative Pronoun relating to a suppressed antecedent, whenever the sense of the sentence remains the same if '*that which*' is substituted for '*what*.'

† Mind that this preposition does not govern 'what' (which is the object of to 'ask'), but its suppressed antecedent 'that.'

I was not at home when you called. I shall see you when I return. He still lay where he had fallen. I will follow you whithersoever you go. This is the house where I live. Tell me the reason why you left the room. Go back to the place whence you came. Show me the shop where you bought that. Wherever he lives, he will be happy. I go to see him whenever I can.

Exercise 69. In the following sentences substitute pronouns preceded by prepositions for the adverbial compounds. (See § 146.)

Herein do I exercise myself. Thereon I pawn my credit. She dares not thereof make discovery. My heart accords thereto. I will hereupon confess I am in love. Present to her a handkerchief, and bid her dry her weeping eyes therewith. Whereunto shall I liken this generation? Wherewithal shall a young man cleanse his way? You take from me the means whereby I live.

Exercise 70. Make the reverse change in the following sentences:—

I long to know the truth *of this* at large. Thy food shall be withered roots and husks *in which* the acorn cradled. The earth is the Lord's and *its* fulness. Take this chain, and bid my wife disburse the sum on the receipt *of it*.

XXXV. Conjunctions.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study the definition and classification of Conjunctions (§§ 285—295).

To parse a conjunction state what Part of Speech it is, and of what class, and state what words or sentences it couples together. The pairs 'both—and,' 'either—or,' and 'neither—nor,' may be taken together and parsed as correlative and co-ordinative conjunctions, joining such and such words or sentences. Subordinative conjunctions usually join the clause which they introduce to the predicate of the principal clause. The conjunction 'than' joins its clause to the preceding comparative adjective or adverb.

Exercise 71. Parse the conjunctions in the following sentences:—

A. He is poor, but he is contented. He neither came nor sent an excuse. He went out quickly and slammed the door. He shot a hare and two rabbits. Both John and Henry came to see me. I will both lay me down in peace and [I will] sleep. Either I am mistaken, or you are. I can neither eat nor [can I] sleep.

B. I have heard that he said so. He told me that he had no money. You will be punished if you do that. If I had seen him, I would have spoken to him. He would not help me, though he knew that I was in need. Though hand join hand in hand, the wicked shall not be unpunished. You will lose the prize unless you work harder. Take heed lest you fall. He spoke loud that I might hear him. I cannot give you any money, for I have none. My brother is taller than you are. He is richer than his brother [is]. He comes oftener than [he] ever [came]. As that is the case, I will come.

Exercise 72. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences, bearing in mind that words like *before*, *after*, *since*, &c., when followed by a noun or pronoun in the objective case, are *prepositions*, but are *conjunctions* when followed by a clause containing a finite verb with its subject:—

John arrived *after* his brother. He walked *before* me. Do not go *before* I come. We left *after* the concert was over. He was sorry *after* he had said it. *Since* you say so, I must believe it. He has not smiled *since* his son died. We have not eaten *since* yesterday. They will go away *before* night. They stayed *until* the next day. I will wait *until* you return. They stayed in Paris *until* their money was spent. All *except* John were present. *Except* ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish. There is nobody *but* me at home. You may go, *but* I will stay.

Exercise 73. Parse the word '*that*' wherever it occurs in the following sentences. (Look at §§ 144, 145, 148, 289.)

Show me that picture. He did not say that. That book is mine. He is the very man that I want. Play me the tune that I like so much. He says that we shall never succeed. He does that that he may vex me. I am afraid that he says that, that he may deceive me. They that will be rich fall into temptation. There is not a man here that I can trust. I lent you that book that you might read it. I hear that he has lost that book that I lent him. You ought to know that that '*that*'* that you see at the beginning of the clause is a conjunction, because I told you that before.

Exercise 74. Make five or six sentences to illustrate each use of the word 'that.'

Exercise 75. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the conjunctions from the relative or conjunctive adverbs, and the latter from the adverbs which have no *syntactical* connecting force, but merely *refer* by their meaning to something that has gone before:—

Come *when* I call you. He came *because* I called him. He left soon *after* I came. I will go *now*. *Now* you are here, you may as well stay. He is very rich; *nevertheless* he is unhappy. He is contented, and *therefore* he is never unhappy. I believed, *therefore* have I spoken. He is as† stingy *as* he is rich. He wasted his time in play; *consequently* he lost the prize. That is true and *also* new. I have no money, *else* (= otherwise) I would give you some.

XXXVI. The Subjunctive Mood.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use of the Subjunctive Mood (§§ 192, &c., 423; 430, &c.)

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* Look at § 349, 5.

† When 'as' is used twice over correlatively, the first 'as' is always *demonstrative*, the second *conjunctive*.

Exercise 76. Parse the verbs in italics in the following sentences, and explain in each case why the subjunctive is used :—

Take care that dinner *be* ready for me by two o'clock. Beware lest something worse *happen* to you. Live temperately that you *may live* (§ 423) long. If you *were* generous, you *would help* me. If you *had sent* for me, I *would have come.* If he *were* to swear to it, I *would* not *believe* it. If I *had* any money, I *would give* it to you. Oh ! that it *were* with me as in days that are past. If this *were* true he *would* not *deny* it. I *would have done* it if I *had been* able. He *could* not be kinder if he *were* my brother. Except the Lord *build* the house, they labour in vain that build it. Peace *be* to his ashes. A south-west *blow* on ye, and *blister* you all o'er. I *would* I *were* a weaver. I *could* sing psalms or anything.

Exercise 77. Parse the verbs in italics in the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the moods and noting whether the verb relates to what is *actual fact*, or expresses one of the subjunctive ideas. The use of a *past form* in relation to *present time*, or of a *past perfect*, when there is no reference to any other event, merely to denote *past time*, is one of the marks of the Subjunctive Mood :—

You *may** go. You *may* keep the book. He says that that he *may vex* me. The boys *would* not be quiet when I *begged* them to be so. He *would* not *tell* me if I *asked* him. The old man *might* be seen daily sitting in the porch. He came that he *might beg* money of me. He *may*† have been in the house, but I did not see him. He *would be* angry if he *knew* of it. He *would have been* angry if he *had known* of it. I *had* just *finished* when you *came* in. "*Had* I but *died* an hour before this chance, I *had lived* a blessed time." He *would* not open the door when I *knocked*. He *would open* the door if you *knocked*. He *would have opened* the door if you *had knocked*. You *should*‡ *not tell* lies. If he *has betrayed* his trust, I will never forgive him. If he *did* that he *deserves* to be punished. If he *had done* it, he *would have confessed* it. If he *did* it, he *would* seriously *displease* me. If that *was* his reply, it *was* a very foolish one. If he *were* to make such a reply it *would be* very foolish. If he *had heard* the news, he *kept* it all to himself. If he *had heard* the news, he *would* not *have kept* it to himself. He *could* not do that if he *tried*. He *could* not do it when he *tried*. He *might have come* if he had wished (*i.e.* it *would have been* in his power, &c). It *may be* very strange (*i.e.* it *is possible* that it is very strange), but it is quite true. It *may* have been my fault (*i.e.* it *is possible* that it was my fault). You *might have won* the prize if you *had been* more diligent. This herb *may* be met with almost everywhere. Last winter roses *might* be found blooming at Christmas. However bad the weather *might* be, he *would* take a walk every day.

Exercise 78. Make ten sentences in which the indicative is used after '*if*,' and ten in which the subjunctive is used.

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* 'May,' 'would,' &c., in the indicative mood must be parsed as *notional*, not as *auxiliary* verbs. See Section XXVIII.

† That is, 'it *is* possible that he was in the house.'

‡ This use of 'should' is peculiar. It is past in form, referring to present time, and yet it is indicative. It follows the analogy of 'ought' and the other preterite-present verbs.

XXXVII. Apposition.

Preliminary Lesson.—When a noun is attached without a conjunction to another noun or pronoun, to give a more complete description of the person or thing meant, it is said to be in apposition to it, and is in the same number and case.*

Exercise 79. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences :—

He has gone to see his aunt *Jane*. My brother *Robert* is expected. Pandulf, the Pope's *legate*, came to England. You, the *author* of that report, are responsible. Fetch your *uncle John's* spectacles. He has alienated even you, his earliest *friend*.

A noun is often used to represent the fact stated in a previous sentence. It then stands in a kind of apposition to the sentence, summing up and repeating its import in a single noun which serves as the antecedent to a relative ; as, "He attempted to ascend the mountain without a guide, *an act* which nearly cost him his life."

Exercise 80. Explain and parse the nouns in italics in the following examples :—

The general made a vigorous onset on the left of the line, a *manœuvre* which distracted the enemy's attention from the main attack. He energetically declared that he knew nothing about the matter ; a *denial* for which I was not prepared. The counsel for the defendant argued that there was no case to go before a jury ; a *view* which was supported by the summing-up of the judge. I trod upon his corns, an *accident* for which I apologized.

XXXVIII. Attributive Adjuncts.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and classification of Attributive Adjuncts. Phrases that do the work of Adjectives. (§§ 362—364.)

Exercise 81. Point out the attributive adjuncts of nouns and pronouns in the following examples, and in each case state of what they consist, and to what they are attached. When two or more adjuncts are attached to the same noun, distinguish them carefully :—

* That is, provided the case is the nominative or objective. One noun in the possessive is never put in apposition to another, but the two nouns are treated as a *single compound name*, and the possessive inflexion is only put after the second of the two nouns, that is, at the end of the compound name. In such a phrase as "My brother William's dog," 'my brother William's' must be parsed as a compound proper noun, in the possessive case, depending on 'dog.'

John's coat is seedy. My cousin Henry died last week. A rattling storm came on. I see a man walking * in the garden. My brother Tom's pony is lame. A man clothed * in a long white robe came up to me. We soon reached the top of the mountain. The prisoner's guilt is manifest. The friends of the prisoner are very rich. Fearing to be caught in the rain, we returned. This is no time for trifling. I saw a house to let further on. Whose hat did you take? I borrowed William's big two-bladed knife. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. A friend in need is a friend indeed. He obtained permission to go. Leave of absence was refused him. Give me now leave to leave thee. His right to the property was disputed. His right to adopt that course was challenged.

XXXIX. Adverbial Adjuncts.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and classification of Adverbial Adjuncts. Words and phrases which do the work of Adverbs, by modifying verbs, adjectives or other adverbs. (§§ 370—372.)

Exercise 82. State to what verb, adjective or adverb the adverbial adjuncts in italics in the following sentences are respectively attached :—

A. We started *early*. He spoke *eloquently*. Do not talk *fast*. Come *quickly*. You are *extremely* kind. He is in an *unusually* good temper. *Where* will you find a truer friend? *How* many persons were *there?* *Why* did you go *away?*

B. Tom struck me *with his fist*. We were talking *about your brother*. I am fond *of reading*. He came *to see me*.† I shall be glad *to hear the news*. You are *in fault*. You are *to blame*. I am *to take you home*. You are *to return to-morrow*. He is worthy *of admiration*. I have a great deal *to say to you*. I was given *to understand* that you had left town. *To save time* let us walk *across the park*. He came forth bound *hand*‡ and *foot*. Go *that way*‡ (i.e. *by that way*). He is not *a bit*‡ better (i.e. *by a bit*). He is *much*‡ (i.e. *by much*) richer than I am. He will be *none* (= *by nothing*) the wiser. I am *none* the worse. He is *a little* better *to-day*. It is [by] *many degrees*‡ colder. He is [by] *a great deal*‡ worse. He is worthy of your love. The book is worth *a guinea*.‡ He left the very day *that*‡(= *on which*) I came. That is the reason *that*‡ (= *for which*) I did it. This is the hour *that*‡ (= *at which*) Madam Sylvia entreated me to call. *What*‡ (= *for what purpose*) need we any further witness? Thy image doth appear in the rare semblance *that* (= *in which*) I loved it first.

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* The attributive adjunct consists of the adjective or participle *together with all the words and phrases that are attached to it*. Thus in the above sentences the attributive adjuncts are 'walking in the garden,' 'clothed in a long white robe," &c. A complex attributive adjunct of this kind may contain a noun which has adjuncts of its own attached to it. Thus 'a,' 'long,' and 'white' are adjuncts of the noun 'robe.'

† Select from Exercise 54 all the examples of the Gerundial Infinitive used adverbially.

‡ In these examples a noun (or substantive pronoun) in the objective, without a preposition before it, constitutes an Adverbial Adjunct.

Collect all the sentences in Exercise 48 which contain adverbial adjuncts.

C. We went to the theatre *last night*. It rained *all day*. I shall see your brother *next week*. This flower blooms *all the year round*. It rained *every day last week*. They walked *barefoot*. He advanced *cap in hand*. The wall is *fifty feet* high.

D. I gave the *boy* a book on his birthday. I will pay *you* your account soon. He is like *his father*. Pass *me* the salt. Do *me* the favour of hearing what I have to say. I will paint *you* a picture.*

E. *The horses being exhausted* we could not proceed. The rest must perish, *their great leader slain*. *Six frozen winters spent*, return with welcome home from banishment. *The battle over*, the troops withdrew.

F. I have fought *a good fight*. He slept *an untroubled sleep*. We cannot live *our lives* over again.

Exercise 83. Point out the adverbial adjuncts in the following sentences; state of what they consist, and to what verb, adjective or adverb they are attached :—

They arrived yesterday. They will be here to-night. He prayed for a speedy deliverance. I am much displeased with your conduct. He is not like his sister. He accompanied us most of the way. You are to come home directly. He approached me dagger in hand. He built a wall ten feet thick. There is a church a mile distant from the town. You are spending your time to no purpose. I am not disposed to sell the horse. On reaching home we found that the rest had arrived before us. We were all talking of the accident. We live in constant fear. Wait a bit. We had nothing to do. What is the matter with you? He is too ready to take offence. I am content to be silent. We are glad to see you. Why did you say that? Where were you on duty last night? He comes here every day. My pony being lame, I cannot ride to-day. My object having been attained, I am satisfied. To reign is worth ambition. The cloth is worth a guinea a yard. He is a year older than I am.

> "Bloodshot his eye, his nostrils spread,
> The loose rein dangling from his head,
> Housing and saddle bloody red,
> Lord Marmion's steed rushed by."

Exercise 84. In the case of the following complex adverbial adjuncts, first point out to what the *entire group* of words is attached, and then show what words are modified by the subordinate adjuncts which the entire group contains. Thus in, "We were talking about the accident that happened to your brother yesterday," the words 'about the accident that happened to your brother yesterday' constitute an adverbial adjunct to the verb 'were talking'; while 'to your brother' and 'yesterday' are adjuncts of the verb 'happened.'

We started very early. He spoke unusually well. Do not talk so fast. Come more quickly. I am fond of riding on horseback.† I shall be glad to

* Add to these examples all those in Exercise 19 which contain an Indirect Object.
† Gerunds may be modified by adverbs as well as any other forms of the verb.

hear of your safe arrival. He escaped by leaping over the ditch. I am fond of going to the theatre. I am looking at the man standing with his back to the window. You should do your best to repair your fault by working harder. He did nothing towards helping me out of my difficulties. We arrived an hour too late. I cannot walk a step further. He was in too much haste to mind what he was about.

Exercise 85. In the following examples show which of the phrases made up of a preposition and a noun do the work of an adjective (see § 362, 4), i.e. are *attributive* adjuncts, and which do the work of an adverb (see § 370, 2), that is, are *adverbial* adjuncts; and show to what word each is attached.

He shot a great quantity of game on the moor. What is the use of all this fuss about the matter? I am delighted to see you in good health. We were vexed by his rudeness to you. The advantages of travelling in foreign countries are very great. He is a man of great industry. He accomplished the task by unflagging industry. A man addicted to self-indulgence will not rise to greatness He is fond of angling. That is a good stream for angling. I am fond of the pastime of angling. I must express my displeasure at your behaviour. You have displeased me by your behaviour. He is not prone to behaviour of this kind. We rely on your promise. Reliance on his promises is useless. Do your duty to him. What is my duty to my neighbour? He adhered to his determination to make the attempt. He is too feeble to make the attempt. He gave him his best wine to drink. The place abounds in good water to drink. Do you see that man on horseback? He has given up riding on horseback. The master praised the boy at the top of the class. He shouted to the boys at the top of his voice.

Exercise 86. Make a dozen sentences in which a preposition followed by a noun or pronoun forms an attributive adjunct, and a dozen in which it forms an adverbial adjunct.

XL. Parsing of Adverbial Adjuncts.

Exercise 87. Nouns occurring in adverbial phrases, and not governed by prepositions, must be parsed as being in the Adverbial Objective Case (i.e., the Objective Case used adverbially), except those in the *absolute* construction, which must (now) be parsed as being in the nominative absolute. What is called the Cognate Object is really one kind of adverbial objective. (See §§ 370—372.)

Parse the words in italics in the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the adverbial objective from the other uses of that case :—

I will pay you next *week*. We shall spend next *week* in London. Papa goes to London every *day*. He spends every other *day* in London. He spends the *half* of every *day* in bed. We sat up half the *night*. We have lost half the *day*. I see him most *days*. Most *days* are joyless to me. Every *evening* we have a rubber. Every *evening* next *week* is engaged. We are engaged

every *evening* next *week*. We went over dry *foot*. Come this *way*. Lead the *way*. I have told him that twenty *times*. I cannot count the *times* that I have told him that. The *horses* having been harnessed, we started. The rest must perish, their great *leader* slain.

Exercise 88. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences :—

He will have the expense *besides* all the trouble. He will have the expense and the trouble *besides*. *Both* John and I were present. *Both* brothers were present. I will *both* lay me down in peace and sleep. *All* those present heard it. He sat up *all* night. *All* is lost. He is *all* powerful at court. We have *other* things to attend to. *Others* may believe it, but I cannot. You may break him, *but* you will never bend him. He spoke to all *but* me. There was *but* a minute to spare. I would do it *but* that I am forbidden. There is no one *but* pities him. Parse 'but' in the last sentence. *Either* road is difficult. I never drink *either* beer or wine. I do not believe *either's* account of the matter. He knows something about it, *else** he would not look so mysterious. I have nobody *else* to look to. They gave us trouble *enough*.† We have not *enough* to eat. They have bread *enough* and *to spare*. He *even* insulted me to my face. It is an *even* chance. Nothing can or shall content my soul till I am *even'd* with him. You are sent *for*. They sent *for* you. You must go, *for* you are sent for. We have wasted *half* the day. I am *half* inclined to believe it. I have not told you one *half* of what was said. It is not that he loves me *more*, but that he fears me *less*. *Less* than that would have been enough. You must spend *less* money. Give him *more* air. He would have said *more* if I had not stopped him. He knows *most* about the matter. He *need* not be afraid. He *needs* strict oversight. His *needs* will be well supplied. He must *needs* pass through Samaria. He told me *much* of what had happened. I am *much* pleased with you. I have not *much* time. He left *next* day. What shall we do *next?* He sat *next* me at dinner. Who comes *next?* He has lost his *only* son. We have *only* four shillings left. Do what you please, *only* be quick about it. All *save* one perished. It was built *some*‡ ten years ago. I have *somewhat* to say unto thee. I feel *somewhat* indisposed. Be *well* assured of that. *Well*, sir, and what did you do next? I am not *well*. *What* need we any further witness? *What* shall we need in this business? *What!* Did you not get my letter? He wants to know the *why* and the *wherefore* of everything. *Why!* he is as rich as Crœsus.

Exercise 89. Parse the following sentences, paying special attention to the constructions that are not obviously consistent with the rules:—

The multitude were of one mind (§ 376). He takes the medicine every three hours (§§ 173, 471). It came to pass about an eight days after these sayings. He lived ten years there. He lived a hundred years (§ 362, 2). He bought three score sheep (§§ 362, 2 ; 55 ; 54). There were a dozen men there. Some‖ twenty persons were present. The battle was fought on this

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* Else is always a mere adverb. It means either 'besides,' or 'otherwise.'

† See the Note on p. 197.

‡ 'Some' here is not an adverb.

‖ 'Some' had better be taken as an adjective, 'Some men (*i.e.* a certain number of men), namely twenty.'

side* the river. He passed six months aboard the ship. The passengers are all on board the ship. I must see him, and that quickly.† Leave the room this instant. 'Who riseth from a feast with that keen appetite that‡ he sits down (*Shaksp. Macb.*). 'Thy image doth appear in the rare semblance that‡ I loved it first' (*id.*). Full many a flower is born to blush unseen. The king with the Lords and Commons form the legislature (§ 377).

XLI. ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

I. Simple Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature of a simple sentence. Difference between the *logical* Subject and Predicate, and the *grammatical* Subject and Predicate.

Exercise § 90. Divide the following sentences into the logical subject, and the logical predicate:—

The child has hurt himself. This naughty child has torn his clothes. The boys came home last night. John's parents have sent him to school. Dismayed at the prospect they beat a retreat. The owner of that estate intends to sell it. My little brother has fallen down. The children, tired with play, came indoors. The friends of that little boy have sent him to sea. A rich old uncle has left him a large estate in Yorkshire. The horse, terrified by the lightning, ran away at full speed.

Questions may be divided in a similar manner. The construction will sometimes be clearer in the primary division, if the predicate be put first. ‖ Thus, "When will your brother return to town?" may be divided. *Pred.* 'When will return to town?' *Subj.* 'Your brother.'

Divide the following sentences in a similar way:—

Does your uncle the doctor know of this? Went not my spirit with thee? Whence did the author of that book get his materials? Who in the world told you that? Why did you send the poor man away? How many shillings have you in your purse?

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* There is no occasion to supply 'of.' We have an adverbial phrase assuming the function of a preposition. Compare the following sentences, and see § 281, 3.

† To parse 'quickly' replace 'that' by the whole of what it stands for.

‡ 'That,' being here the representative of a relative pronoun governed by a preposition, is an adverbial adjunct, and must be parsed as being in the Adverbial Objective.

§ The examples in the following exercises may be taken for practice in parsing as well as in analysis.

‖ If the subject be the interrogative 'who,' it had better come first.

Exercise 91. The component parts of a compound tense are often separated by the intrusion of adverbial adjuncts. Take the following sentences and put with the subject in each the *whole of the verb* that belongs to it, without the other words. Thus from "We have already heard the news," take "We have heard."

We shall soon reach our destination. The field is already being reaped. The work will very probably be finished before night. We shall in due time know all about it. I had at last with infinite trouble surmounted the difficulty, I shall most likely hear from you to-morrow. I have been all the morning trying to make out this problem. You will by these very simple means stop his proceedings. He is of all enchantingly beloved. He has in the most unfair manner been deprived of his rights.

Exercise 92. Take the following sentences * and separate the logical subject in each into the grammatical subject and its adjuncts in the way shown in § 490.

(My) (poor) (little) brother has hurt himself. (My brother John's) pony has broken his leg. (A) man (carrying a great sack of flour) came into the barn. (The) (impudent) fellow (not being satisfied with my alms) began to abuse me. (My poor little brother's) (pet) bird was shot. (This) law, (the disgrace of our statute book) was repealed. (The) house (on the other side of the street) is on fire. (The) (Chubb's) (patent) lock (to my desk) has been picked. (Good) water (for drinking) was scarce. (Despairing † of success) he abandoned the undertaking. (Disgusted † by so many acts of baseness) (the man's) friends (all) deserted him.

The old church has fallen into ruins The brave soldiers of the garrison died at their posts. A rich old uncle left him his property. A horseman, wrapped in a huge cloak, entered the yard. The handle of the pump in the yard is broken. John's account of the affair alarmed me. Which boy knows his lessons? What poet's works please you most? What goods are most in demand? What naughty little boy broke the window?

Exercise 93. Make (or find) a dozen sentences in which the grammatical subject is enlarged (see § 388), and state in each case of what the enlargement consists.

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* In the first few sentences the words or groups of words forming separate adjuncts are enclosed in brackets.

† The *grammatical form* of a sentence often lags behind its *logical import*. Thus, an *independent* sentence beginning with a demonstrative often occurs where the sense implies grammatical connection, as "I believed, *therefore* have I spoken." 'Therefore' is not a conjunction, but a demonstrative adverb, meaning 'for that reason.' So participles and participial phrases are (grammatically speaking) *attributive adjuncts;* and yet they often involve an *adverbial force;* as here, 'because he despaired of success,' and 'because they were disgusted.' Adjectives may be used in the same way. 'Afraid of being betrayed into an ambuscade, the leader halted.' *Grammatically* you can make nothing of 'afraid' but an adjective, though the same notion of *because* clings to the expression. So in Milton, "His meek aspect, *silent*, yet spake." Here 'silent' means 'although it was silent,' but grammatically it is nothing more than an *adjective*. In analysis and parsing *grammatical form* is the essential thing. The point in question has nothing to do with any 'servile imitation of Latin Grammar,' or any confusion between participles and verbal nouns.

Exercise 94. Separate the following sentences into two groups, one consisting of those in which there is a grammatical object of the predicate verb, the other consisting of those in which there is not a grammatical object. Then take the sentences in the first group and set down separately the object of the verb in each, and the several attributive adjuncts of the object. Thus: 'John sent to us an amusing account of the proceedings.' *Object*:—'Account.' *Attributive adjuncts of Object*:—1. 'An'; 2. 'amusing'; 3. 'of the proceedings.'

My cousin arrived last night. We were greatly amused by his story. He told us a droll story about his brother. Have you read this author's last work? Whom did you see at the concert? The girl is admired by everybody. Everybody admires John's little sister. Thus ended a war * of ten years' duration. This ended that most unpleasant business. Down came the rain. I saw a soldier on horseback.† I met some gipsies in my ramble. The master praised the boy at the top of the class. The man struck the poor little boy on the head. The boys were rewarded for their diligence. My horse fell down in the road. Deep drank Lord Marmion of the wave. On the top of the hill stands a stone cross. We were strenuously advised to turn back. We rapidly turned round in the direction of the report. He sent his hat round to collect contributions. The boys have been forbidden to enter the orchard. They shook the depths of the desert gloom with their hymns of holy cheer. He had the impudence to tell me to hold my tongue.

Exercise 95. Take the sentences in the last three exercises, and write down the several adverbial adjuncts of the predicate in each.

Exercise 96. Give the complete analysis of the following sentences:—

John's account of the affair alarmed me. Every finite verb in a sentence has a subject. My brother Henry told me‡ that. I saw the occurrence through a gap in the wall. That lazy boy did not go out of doors all the morning. Have you heard the news? Have§ those little boys finished their Latin exercises during my absence? I desire nothing more ardently. Crying will not help you out of the difficulty. To act thus will displease his father. To do this properly requires time. Who spoke last? Whom did you hear at church this morning? Hoping to find an easier road, we left our companions at the bridge. How‖ did you find your way? He used a stick to support his steps. You say so to tease me. Considering his age he has done pretty well at the examination. Very¶ few men could have done that. How¶ much money will be enough for you? What foolish notion possesses you? A little girl's voice was heard in the garden. A large dog's bark was

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* Mind that the subject very often *follows* the verb.

† Observe that this phrase does not show where the act of seeing took place. Contrast this sentence with the next.

‡ Look at § 370, 4.

§ In questions the subject is often so placed as to break the predicate (when it is a compound form of the verb) into two parts. To see the construction properly, give the *complete answer* to the question.

‖ Remember that 'how' is an adverb.

¶ Take care in the analysis not to separate attributive words from the adverbial adjuncts that may be attached to them.

heard in the distance. An empty bird's nest was found. The tall lady's dress was torn. Some ladies' silk dresses were sold by auction. My cousin's return interrupted our game. Here shall be done a deed of dreadful note. We had a purpose to be his purveyor. He found his brother lying fast asleep. We have bought a pretty little calf a month old. His wrath may find some worse way to our destruction. What more do you desire? Whom did you find walking in the garden? Whose umbrella did you take? Whose exercise has the fewest faults? The poor man's wife died last night. He fell head foremost into the river. They advanced step by step. Give me * a cup of tea. I return you * my best thanks. "Take thee * that too." I told you* all that an hour agoŧ. He died a happy death.‡ This said, he sat. There lay Duncan, his silver skin laced with his golden blood. The poor wren will fight, her young ones in her nest, against the owl. Downward they move, a melancholy band. Conceit, in weakest bodies, strongest works. Forth at your eyes, your spirits wildly peep. Who ever experienced anything like kindness at his hands? Who but a fool would talk like that? What have you done with the money? What arrant nonsense that foolish man talks! Which [horse] of these horses is to be sold? He eats his food like § a hog. He was taught Greek (§ 372) by his uncle. 'Teach me thy statutes.' 'Teach erring man‖ to spurn the rage of gain.' The dead were refused burial (§ 372).

Exercise 97. Take the following pairs of subjects and verbs and build up sentences by putting in objects, where they are wanted, and enlarging the subjects, predicates, and objects, with as many adjuncts, attributive and adverbial, as you can. Thus, from 'Men rob,' you may make 'Men of weak character, led astray by temptation, sometimes rob their unsuspecting friends shamefully.'

Birds build. Ship carries. Boy lost. Loaf was bought. Brother left. Sister came. Children went. Men found. We arrived. Man struck. Horse threw.

Exercise 98. Make a dozen other sentences in a similar way with subjects and verbs of your own choosing.

Exercise 99. Parse all the words in Exercises 94 and 96.

XLII. Verbs of Incomplete Predication.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and construction of Verbs of Incomplete Predication (§§ 391—396). Mode of analysing sentences in which they occur (§§ 493, 498—500).

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* Look at § 370, 4.

ŧ 'Ago' is a shortened form of 'agone.' The phrase originally formed a nominative (or objective) absolute.

‡ Look at § 371.

§ 'Like' is here an adverb.

‖ Here 'man' had better be taken as the direct object, 'teach' having the same kind of sense as 'train' or 'instruct.'

Exercise 100. Analyse the following sentences containing Subjective Complements of verbs of Incomplete Predication :—

He is insane. They are honest. He is an honest man. He became my friend. He became very rich in a short time. He grew rich suddenly. He was called an enthusiast by his friends. He is not thought a fool. The prisoner was pronounced guilty of homicide. He is my cousin's friend. He is considered a pretty good player. We got quite tired. The wine tastes sweet. She looks very pretty. That appears very plausible. He was elected Emperor. He stood silent (see § 391). They entered laughing. The dog ran away howling. He felt tired. The air feels keen. He stood rubbing his eyes. The boys rushed shouting into the playground. I am sure of pleasing you in this. He sat twiddling his thumbs.

Exercise 101. Parse the preceding sentences. In accordance with § 393 (which see) account for the case of the complement either by saying that the verbs 'be,' 'become,' &c., take the same case after them as before them, or (better) by saying that the complement is in the predicative relation to the subject. (See § 374.)

Exercise 102. The verb *to be* is a verb of incomplete predication when it is employed in making a compound tense of a verb in either the active or the passive voice, as 'He is going ;' 'I was saying ;' 'He is gone ;' 'He was struck.' But when used to form a tense of another verb, it is usually called an *Auxiliary Verb*. In such cases the compound form denotes the performance, the continuance, or the completion of an action. When *the state that is the result of the action* is denoted, the participle that follows is merely an adjective of quality. When it is not accompanied by a complement of some sort, *to be* is a verb of *complete predication*, or (as it is sometimes called) the 'verb of *existence*.' (*N.B.*—An adverb or adverbial phrase is not a complement.)

Point out carefully the various uses of the verb in the following examples :—

He is in the parlour. He is going away. Such things have been. The time has been, that when the brains were out, the man would die. We are ready. I am in doubt about that. The boy was blamed for that. The poor man was starved to death. The children are half starved. He was wounded by an arrow. The poor soldier is badly wounded. I am trying to do it. This delay is trying to our patience. I am delighted to see you. We were delighted by the concert. He is named John. He was called a fool for his pains. Where are you? Where have you been all the morning?

Exercise 103. Analyse the following sentences containing Objective Complements of verbs of incomplete predications (§§ 391, 395) :—

He painted the wall white. He made us all merry. They made Henry king. He called the man a liar. You have made your hands dirty. This measure rendered the plot abortive. He set the audience laughing. The king appointed him commander-in-chief. The thunder has turned the milk sour. The cat has licked the plate clean. Shame has struck him dumb.

Exercise 104. Analyse the following sentences, in which the subjective complement is a verb in the infinitive mood (§ 394). Show where the complementary infinitive has itself a complement. These secondary complements, as well as the primary ones, are in the predicative relation to the subject. Do not confound the *object* of a verb with its complement.

He is believed to have perished. They are supposed to have lost their way. He is thought to have poisoned the man. He is believed to be mad. That step was considered to be very imprudent. He was found to be in the right. This kind of life is not to be endured.*

Exercise 105. Parse the preceding sentences.

Exercise 106. Analyse the following sentences containing Infinitive Complements.† (See § 396.) Show carefully whether adverbial adjuncts are to be attached to the verb of incomplete predication, or to its complement. (See § 493.)

They can write well. We can sing. They may depart. We must make haste. You shall be rewarded. I will be answered. I cannot hear you. They may take the money. I will return shortly. They shall have a good scolding. That cannot be allowed. Nothing could be more unfortunate. You might have found an easier way. I do so long to see him. He ought to pay me. You ought to be more cautious. That may perhaps be true.

Exercise 107. Analyse the following sentences, carefully distinguishing those cases in which a verb is followed by a *complement*, or an indirect predicate, from those in which it is followed by an *adverbial adjunct*. See whether the word in question denotes the *condition* of that which is spoken about, or the *manner* in which an action is done.

That looks pretty. The bell sounded cracked. He spoke loud. The cry sounded clear and shrill. His voice sounded feebly. His voice sounded feeble. He has travelled far and wide. They have not made the street wide enough. The people wept sore. It grieved me sore. The milk turned sour. Grumbling will not make things better. I cannot make my appearance sooner. You must write your exercises better. He seems better this morning. The doctor found the patient much better. The meat cuts tough. The fun grew fast and furious. That child grows fast. They made his feet fast in the stocks. The news drove him frantic. The man went mad. The stones have made my feet

* In many of these constructions, this gerundial infinitive is scarcely distinguishable from an adverbial adjunct expressing purpose. In sentences like "How am I to do it?" "You are to be quiet," the infinitive is certainly adverbial.

† These complements are in reality in the Objective Relation to the verbs of incomplete predication.

sore. He rubbed his face hard. The water is frozen hard. He rubbed his face sore. They came late. This delay will make us late. The bird sang clear. The ship passed clear of the rock. The water runs clear. Her voice sounds clear. The trees whispered soft and low. The whisper came soft and low to our ears. He made his horse canter. He bade the man wait. He ordered the man to wait. He asked me to come. They urged us to come. He saw the deed done. He heard the bone snap. You shall be rewarded. He was ordered to sit down.

XLIII. Complex Objective Phrases.*

Preliminary Lesson.—Study § 397.

Exercise 108. Analyse the following sentences containing indirect predicates :—

He heard† the wind roar through the trees. I heard the man say so. We saw the thief try to pick a gentleman's pocket. I wish† you to come to-morrow. I believe† the man to be innocent. I felt† the air fan my cheek. I have heard [people] say that he is very rich. Have you ever known† the man confess being in fault? The duke will never grant this forfeiture to hold. I like† a knave to meet with his deserts. I expected† the travellers to be here by this time. The wind sits fair for‡ news to go to Ireland. It is too late for‡ the travellers to arrive to-night. The task was too difficult for‡ him to hope to succeed.

XLIV. Complex Sentences.

Substantive Clauses.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature, form, and structure of substantive clauses (§§ 401—405).

Exercise 109. In the following sentences a substantive clause (or noun-sentence, as it is often termed) is the subject. Analyse the sentences in the mode indicated in § 515, &c. When 'it' is employed as a temporary, or provisional subject, set it down as such, and place after it the substantive clause as the real subject. Analyse the substantive clauses separately, remembering that the conjunction 'that' does not enter into the structure of the clause which it introduces, but that interrogative words do, being either pronouns or adverbs.

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* In constructions of this sort the verb in the infinitive mood may be parsed as being the verb in an objective infinitive phrase, having the preceding noun or pronoun in the objective case as its subject. It is unusual now to find these infinitive phrases used as the subjects of verbs, but an example is given in § 547, with which may be compared Chaucer, *Prol.* 502. "No wonder is *a lewed man to ruste*,"—*i.e.*, 'that a lewed man should ruste is no wonder.'

† Notice that the meaning of this verb is *quite complete in itself*. The *whole* of the following phrase is the object of it.

‡ Here the Infinitive phrase is governed by a preposition.

Before analysing the sentences in this and the succeeding Exercises, draw a line * under *the entire set of words* which form the substantive clause, remembering that you have not got a complete substantive clause, or noun-sentence, unless it has a subject and a finite verb, with all the adjuncts that may be attached to either of these. (See § 512, *note*.)

That he did the deed is quite certain. That he said so is undeniable. Who can have told you that, puzzles me. How long I shall stay here is uncertain. What we are to do next is the question. What his capacity is signifies nothing. How I found the matter out is no concern of yours. How completely you are mistaken can easily be shown. What signifies what weather we have?

It is not true that he said so. It is very probable that he will not arrive to-day. It is uncertain what the result will be. It does not matter what he thinks. It is uncertain how long I shall stay.

Thence it is that I to your assistance do make love. What does it signify how rich he is? It is a question how far he was justified in that proceeding.

Methinks† I know that handwriting. Anon methought the wood began to move. Methinks he hath no drowning mark upon him. Methought the billows spoke. Was it on Tuesday that he went away? It was only yesterday that I saw him.

Exercise 110. Analyse the following sentences in which a substantive clause is the object of a verb, or of a phrase equivalent to a transitive verb :—

I knew that he would come. I heard that he had arrived. I think I have the honour of addressing Mr. Smith? Tell me who told you. Tell me how old you are. Tell him I cannot see him to-day. I want to know when this happened. I thought it‡ strange that he should leave without calling on me. I swear I have no mind of feasting forth to-night. He told me he knew all about the matter. Tell me what you think of all this. Advise if§ this be worth attempting. Try if you can decipher that letter. I fear thou play'dst most foully for it. I am hopeful that he will soon get better. He is confident that I shall succeed. We are resolved that that shall not occur again. He made it a condition that I should become security for the payment. He felt it to be a disgrace that he had so utterly failed. Try how far you can jump.

Exercise 111. Analyse the following sentences in which a substantive clause is in apposition to a noun, or comes after a preposition (§ 404), or is used absolutely with a participle, like a nominative absolute :—

The fact that you say so is enough for me. The circumstance that he was present must not be disregarded. The idea that I can comply with his request

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* To those who are acquainted with my larger grammar I need hardly observe that this mode of marking sentences has not been borrowed from the later works of others.

† The introductory conjunction 'that' is often omitted. See § 403 and § 244.

‡ 'It' often does duty as a temporary or provisional *object*. Deal with it as in the case of the subject; that is, first analyse the sentence without the substantive clause, and then substitute that clause for the 'it.'

§ 'If' has here the force of 'whether'.

is absurd. He did this to the end that he might convince me. I undertook the business in the expectation that he would help me. He could not get rid of the idea that I was his enemy. In case* you should see him, bring him with you. I came on the chance that I might find you at home. Who can want the thought how monstrous it was for Malcolm and for Donalbain to kill their gracious father? He sent me word that he would come anon. There was a rumour that the army had been defeated. Oh! yet I do repent me of my fury that I did kill them. For that I love your daughter, I must advance the colours of my love. That depends upon how you did it. I would not believe the story but that you avouch it. I hate him for he is a Christian, but more for that in low simplicity he lends out money gratis. In case I am not there, go on without me. Provided that he consents, I will undertake the business. Provided this report be confirmed, we shall know what to do.

The word 'so' is only a substantive demonstrative pronoun† used adverbially. Being essentially a substantive, it may have a substantive clause in apposition to it. Analyse the following sentences :—

You may go where you like so (= on the condition) that you are back by dinner time. "For nothing hold me so it please thee hold (*i.e.*, regard) that nothing me a something dear to thee." "So please my lord (*i.e.*, 'on the condition that it please my lord') to quit the fine, I am content."

Exercise 112. Transitive verbs govern an object, not because they are predicative words, but because they denote a *transitive action.* Nouns that do this may have a substantive clause after them, which may be described as an 'objective adjunct to the noun.'

Analyse the following sentences :—

I see no sign that the fever is abating. That is a proof that he knows nothing about the matter. We welcomed these indications that spring was near. He has obtained my consent that he should go to college. There is no fear that he will fail.

Exercise 113. Analyse the following sentences, in which the Substantive Clause forms an Adverbial Adjunct to a verb or adjective (like the Latin *accusative of limitation*, or *closer definition*).

I convinced him that he was mistaken.‡ I am sorry that you are not well.§ We are glad that you have come at last. We are disappointed that you have not brought your brother. I am certain that he never said so. I am persuaded that that is the wiser course. He is desirous that I should return.

Exercise 114. Analyse the following sentences, in which an infinitive accompanied by an interrogative word supplies the place of a substantive clause beginning with an interrogative :—

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* Note the omission of 'that.'

† It is often used without any adverbial force, as in 'I told you *so*.' 'I drank a pint or *so* of wine.' 'Is he a captain? He is *so*' 'He is a fool, and *so* is his brother.' The strengthened form 'as' (also, § 165) often has a pronominal force.

‡ That is, 'I convinced him *with respect to* this point.'

§ That is 'I am sorry *on this account*, or *as regards this*.'

How to do it is the difficulty. I taught him how to do it. Where to get the money puzzles me. He never knows when to go. I am considering what to do next. I know not where to get food. I know not how to thank you sufficiently. The difficulty is how to get there.

XLV.—Adjective Clauses.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature, form, and construction of Adjective Clauses (§§ 406—413).

Exercise 115. Underline the adjective clauses in each of the following sentences, then analyse the entire sentence, and lastly analyse the adjective clause separately* :—

The serpent that did sting thy father's life, now wears his crown. I could a tale unfold whose lightest word would harrow up thy soul. The rest (*i.e.*, 'repose') is labour which is not used for you. He had many heavy burdens to bear, the pressure of which nearly crushed him. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just. I saw the captain in whose ship you will sail. Do you know the gentleman to whom this park belongs? Infected be the air whereon † they ride. Thy food shall be husks wherein the acorn cradled. What sad talk was that wherewith my brother held you in the cloister? I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows. Thou speak'st to such a man that is no fleering tell-tale. Unto bad causes swear such creatures as‡ men doubt. You will soon find such peace which it is not in the power of the world to give. His behaviour is not such [behaviour] as I like. You are welcome to my help, such as§ it is. This cloth is not such [cloth] as I asked for. I have not from your eyes that gentleness and show of love as‡ I was wont to have. In me thou seest the twilight of such day, as‡ after sunset fadeth in the west.

Exercise 116. Deal in a similar way with the sentences in Exercise 61.

Exercise 117. Supply the relatives which are omitted in the sentences in Exercise 63, and then analyse the sentences.

Make (or find) a dozen sentences containing adjective clauses in which the relative is expressed, and a dozen in which it is omitted, and then analyse them.

Exercise 118. Analyse the following sentences in which the Adjective Clauses have a Relative Adverb in place of a Relative Pronoun governed by a Preposition (§ 406).

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* Remember that the Adjective Clause must contain a subject and a finite verb of its own.
† See § 162. 'Whereon' (= on which) forms an adverbial adjunct to 'ride.' It must be parsed as a compound adverb.
‡ See § 165, 411. 'As' must be treated as equivalent to a relative pronoun.
§ The clause 'as it is' is in the attributive relation to 'help,' and the quasi-relative 'as' is the complement of the predicate in its own clause.

I will show you the shop where I bought these apples. The reason why you cannot succeed is evident. Return to the place whence you came. I can remember the time when there were no houses here. Do you know the source whence he obtained this information? The fortress whither the defeated troops had fled was soon captured.

Exercise 119. Analyse the following sentences, in which the Adjective Clauses are attached to (and explain) the neuter demonstrative pronouns *it*, *that*, and *this*.

It was John who said so.* It was the owl that shrieked.† Who was it that thus cried? It is the eye of childhood that fears a painted devil. Is this a dagger which‡ I see before me, the handle towards my hand? That which hath made them drunk hath made me bold. Was that your brother who knocked at the door? Is that a scar that you have on your hand? It was a gun-shot that killed him.

Exercise 120. Analyse the sentences in Exercise 67. You may either supply the suppressed antecedents, or treat the clauses as *Adjective Clauses used substantively* (§ 408).

Exercise 121. The word 'what' sometimes introduces an adjective clause, and sometimes an indirect question, which is a substantive clause. *What* is interrogative when it cannot be replaced by 'that which' (§ 409).

Analyse the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the substantive clauses from the adjective clauses, and then parse the sentences :—

Repeat what you have just said. You have only told me what I know already. I know what you said about me. Go, and find out what is the matter. Do what you can in this business. Pray tell me what ails you. You must not dictate to me what I am to do. This is what he did. He soon repented of what he had done. He knows well enough what he ought to do. That is precisely what he ought to have done. I cannot make out what you are saying. I do not understand what you are saying.

Exercise 122. Make (or find) a dozen sentences illustrating each use of 'what,' and analyse them.

Exercise 123. The pronouns 'who' and 'which,' and the pronominal adverbs 'when,' 'where,' &c., have the same twofold use; the adverbs, when used as the equivalents of relative pronouns governed by prepositions, having a *relative* force.

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* That is, "It (the person) who said so, was John."
† That is, "It (the creature) that shrieked, was the owl."
‡ The adjective clause 'which—hand' is attached to 'this.' 'The handle towards my hand' is a nominative absolute belonging to the adjective clause.

Analyse the following sentences :—

Find out who did that. Whom we raise we will make fast. I could not make out whom he was alluding to. That is where* I live. Tell me where you live. Tell me why you are so angry. That is why* I am angry. I do not know when they will arrive. I knew when* seven justices could not take up a quarrel. I have seen when,* after execution, judgment hath repented o'er his doom. Tell me where he is. See where* he looks out of the window. That is how† he always treats me. That is why* I did it.

Exercise 124. Analyse the following sentences, treating the clauses containing a relative not as adjective clauses, but as independent sentences ; as though 'and' with a demonstrative pronoun were substituted for the relative (§ 412) :—

I the matter will re-word, which madness would gambol from. Being shown into a grand apartment, I delivered my letter, which he read. We travelled together as far as Paris, where we parted company. In London he made the acquaintance of my brother, whom he visited frequently. This modest stone, what few vain marbles can, May truly say, 'Here lies an honest man.' By this time we had traversed half the distance, when a loud clap of thunder warned us to quicken our steps. Next day they renewed the fight, which lasted till the evening. Honourable ladies sought my love, which I denying,‡ they fell sick and died.

Exercise 125. Deal in a similar way with the sentences in Exercises 63 and 65.

XLVI. Adverbial Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature, form, and structure of Adverbial Clauses (§§ 414—435).

1. Adverbial Clauses relating to Time (§ 416).

Exercise 126. Analyse (and parse) the following sentences, after first underlining the Adverbial Clauses, and then analyse these clauses separately.§

I will tell you the secret‖ when I see you. When you durst do it, then you were a man. I did not know that till you told me. While he is here we shall have no peace.

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* In the analysis supply an antecedent noun.

† 'How,' as a relative, never has an antecedent *expressed*.

‡ We have here a nominative absolute, forming an adverbial adjunct to *fell*. 'Which' is the object of 'denying.'

§ Remember that the conjunctive or pronominal adverbs *when, where, whither*, &c., have an *adverbial* construction in their own clauses, but that the Conjunctions *after, before, till, while*, &c., have no such force. 'While' has nothing to do with the relative pronoun. It is an old noun meaning 'time,' to which a substantive clause beginning with '*that*' was in apposition. The omission of 'that' gave to 'while' a conjunctive force.

‖ In parsing a sentence of this kind, 'when' should be described as a connective adverb, modifying the verb 'see,' and joining the clause 'when I see you' to the predicate 'will tell.'

A plague [be] upon it, when thieves cannot be true to one another. What signifies asking, when there's not a soul to give you an answer? I'll charm the air to give a sound while you perform your antic round. He arrived after we had left. I shall be gone before you are up. He left the room as I entered. You may come whenever you please.

2. Adverbial Clauses relating to Place (§ 417).

Exercise 127. Analyse and parse the following sentences :—

He still lay where he fell. Where thou dwellest, I will dwell. Wherever you go, I will follow you. There,* where a few torn shrubs the place disclose, the village preacher's modest mansion rose. Whithersoever I went, he followed me. Seat yourselves wherever there is room.

3. Adverbial Clauses relating to Manner and Degree (§ 418).

Exercise 128. Analyse and parse the following sentences :—

As the tree falls, so† it will lie. Do as I tell you [to do]. He is as‡ avaricious as his brother is generous. The§ higher you climb, the wider will be the prospect. The longer I know him, the less I like him. The more he has, the more he wants. How‖ far the substance of my praise doth wrong this shadow, so far this shadow doth limp behind the substance. How a bright star shooteth from the sky, so glides he in the night from Venus' eye. She is as good as she is beautiful. We do not always write as we pronounce. He always does as he promises [to do].

4. Adverbial Clauses relating to Cause, Purpose, and Consequence (§ 421—423).

Exercise 129. Analyse and parse the following sentences :—

He came because I sent for him. I cannot tell you his age, for I do not know it. Because Thou hast been my help, therefore in the shadow of Thy wings will I rejoice. Since you say so, I must believe it. As he has begged my pardon, I will forgive him. When I am determined I always listen to reason, because then it can do no harm. The fool is happy that he knows no more.

He toils hard that he may get rich. I called on him that I might tell him about that matter. He retired to his own room that he might study quietly. Take care that all be ready. Take heed lest ye fall into temptation.

I am so¶ tired that I am ready to drop. He is so weak that he cannot stand. He is such a liar that nobody believes him. It is so dark that we cannot see.

---

* 'There' and the clause 'where—disclose' are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'rose.'

† 'So' and the clause 'as the tree falls' are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'will lie.'

‡ The first 'as' is demonstrative, the second relative. Each modifies the adjective in its clause.

§ Here the main clause is the second one. The first 'the' is relative, the second demonstrative. (See § 420.) The first modifies 'higher', the second modifies 'wider.' The second 'the' and the adverbial clause are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'wider,' the clause explaining the indefinite meaning of 'the.'

‖ 'How' is a relative or connective adverb modifying 'far,' and joining the adverbial clause (which is co-ordinate with 'so') to the second 'far.'

¶ The demonstrative 'so' and the adverbial clause are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'tired.'

5. Adverbial Clauses relating to Condition. Hypothetical and Concessive Clauses (§§ 424—434.).

Exercise 130. Analyse the following sentences :—

If you call you will see him. I would have called on you, if I had known your address. You will not succeed unless you try harder. I will not come unless you invite me. Except ye repent ye shall all likewise perish. Though he is rich he is not contented. You will see him though I shall not [see him]. An (= if) I have not ballads made on you all, and sung to filthy tunes, let a cup of sack be my poison. So* I lose not honour in seeking to augment it, I shall be counselled. I doubt not but to die a fair death for all this, if I escape hanging for killing† that rogue. Whatever may be the consequence, I will do what I have said. Whatever he may say,‡ I shall not believe him. Say [he] what he will [say] he will never convince me. Do [he] what he can [do], he never pleases the man. Whencesoever the money comes it is welcome. However great his abilities may be, he cannot succeed without industry. Be he ne'er so vile, this day shall gentle his condition. The lady's fortune must not go out of the family ; one may find comfort in the money, whatever one does [find] in the wife. Cold§ as it is, I shall go out. Big as he is, I am not afraid of him. Had I known‖ this I should have acted differently. Were you my brother I could not do it for you. I would have finished the work had it been possible.

XLVII. Complex Subordinate Clauses.

Exercise 131. In the following sentences a substantive clause contains a subordinate clause within it. Analyse the sentences, first treating the substantive clause as a whole, and afterwards analysing it separately. Underline the clauses in the way shown in § 514 and in the first few sentences :—

He said 1) he would return 2) the book when he had read it. I wish 1)
(1)
(2)
the boy would finish the task 2) I set him. Tell 1) me how old you were 2)
(1) (1)
(2)
when your father died. But 1) that my foot slipped 2) as I turned the corner,
(1)
(2) (2)

---

* This construction consists of a substantive clause '[that] I lose not honour,' in apposition to the adverb 'so,' which is in reality a substantive pronoun used adverbially. (*See Exercise* 111.) 'So' has no adverbial relation to any word in the clause which it introduces.

† Mind that 'for killing' is not an adverbial adjunct of 'escape,' but an attributive adjunct of the verbal noun 'hanging.' (§ 362, 4.)

‡ Do not confound this construction with that of such a sentence as 'I believe whatever he says.' Analyse this.

§ The construction in this and the following sentences is very peculiar. 'Cold' is in reality the complement of the predicate. The construction is the same as if we had 'however cold it is. Or it may be taken as [It being] cold as it is [cold].

‖ 'If' is omitted (§ 434).

I should have won the race. Where they most breed and haunt, I have
(1)
(2)
observed* 1) the air is 2) delicate.

Who told you that I built the house which you see? He fears that his father will ask him where he has been. But that I told him who did it, he would never have known. Nor failed they to express how much they praised that for the general safety he despised his own. I think he will soon retrieve his misfortunes if he sets to work with good-will. I should like to know how your friend found out where I live. Now methinks you teach me how a beggar should be answered. I'll see if I can get my husband's ring, which I did make him swear to keep for ever.

Exercise 132. Analyse on similar principles the following sentences, which contain complex adjective clauses :—

The person 1) who told 2) you that I said so, is mistaken. A child 1)
(1)
(2)
that does not mind 2) when he is spoken to must be punished. There are men
(1)
(2)
1) who care 2) not what they say. "My foolish rival 1)" that her father likes
(1)
(2)
(1)
2) only for his possessions are so huge, is gone with her. The man 1) who
(1)
(2)
does the best 2) that he can [do] deserves praise. I should report that 1) which
(1)
(2)
(1)
(2)
I say 2) I saw.†

The house where I lived when I was in town has been pulled down. I have only done what I told you I would do. They fear what‡ yet they know must follow. I have secret reasons which I forbear to mention because you are not able to answer those of which I make no secret. The time has been that when the brains were out the man would die. The right valiant Banquo walked too late, whom you may say, if it pleases you, Fleance killed. The eighth appears, who bears a glass which shows me many more.

Exercise 133. Analyse the following sentences which contain complex adverbial clauses :—

I will not leave 1) till I know 2) that he is out of danger. I wrote 1) to him
(1)
(2)

* This clause breaks up the continuity of the substantive clause. In analysis put 'I have observed the air is delicate' first.

† Observe that the substantive clause is broken by 'I say.' The construction is the same as in: 'I say [that] I saw it.'

‡ 'What' is in the nominative case, the subject of 'must.' The construction will be best seen by substituting the demonstrative :—'they know [that] that must follow.'

immediately because I knew 2) how anxious he was. I shall be much obliged
(1).....
(2)———————
1) if you will repeat the story 2) which you have just heard.
(1).....
(2)———————

He soon left the house when he heard that I was coming. You will be punished if you do not come when you are called. Don't let us make imaginary evils, when we know we have so many real ones to encounter. He seldom drinks wine because he finds that it disagrees with him.

Exercise 134. Analyse the following sentences, each of which contains a subordinate clause containing a second, which in its turn contains a third :—

I was grieved when I heard how he had obtained the character which he bore among his neighbours. I know that he would never have spread such a report, if he had not believed what your brother told him. Men who see clearly how they ought to act when they meet with obstacles, are invaluable helpers. It would be well if all men felt how surely ruin awaits those who abuse their gifts and powers. It was so hot in the valley that we could not endure the garments which we had found too thin when we were higher up among the mists. I will give you no more money till I see how you use what you have.

XLVIII. Compound Sentences.

These present no new features. The two or more co-ordinate sentences which make up the compound sentence simply have to be analysed separately, with the omission of the conjunction that joins them. (§ 436.)

XLIX. Contracted Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study carefully §§ 439, 440, 551—556.

Exercise 135. Test the accuracy of the following contracted sentences in the manner shown in § 440 : then fill them up* and analyse them separately :—

You must either be quiet or [you must] leave the room. Our purer essence then will overcome the noxious vapour of these raging fires, or [our purer essence,] inured, [will] not feel [the noxious vapour of these raging fires]. Our greatness will appear then most conspicuous when great things of small [things we can create, when] useful [things] of hurtful [things we can create, when] prosperous [things] of adverse [things] we can create.

My day or night myself I make, whene'er I sleep or play. He yields neither† to force nor† to persuasion. I have not decided whether I will go

* Two or three are filled up by way of example.
† Suppress the *conjunctive* portion of *neither—nor* by substituting *not—not*.

or not. He allowed no day to pass without either writing or declaiming aloud. If you pursue this course you will not injure me, but you will ruin yourself. He pursued, but could not overtake the retreating enemy. "Bad men boast their specious deeds on earth, which glory excites, or close ambition varnished o'er with zeal." "What praise could they receive, what pleasure I, from such obedience paid?" "Two principles in human nature reign, self-love to urge, and reason to restrain." "Nor this a good, nor that a bad we call." "Who wickedly is wise or madly brave, Is but the more a fool, the more a knave." "See the sole bliss Heaven could on all bestow, which * who but feels can taste, but thinks can know." He grows worse and worse. Would you rather drink wine or beer? "Nor steel nor poison, malice domestic, foreign levy, nothing can touch him further." "Freely they stood who stood, and fell who fell." When you return come and tell me the news. As she sat in the old arm-chair she pondered with bitter grief over the past, and thought of the future with shuddering fear. As the years went on, scandals increased and multiplied. Unless you alter your conduct you will offend your friends and bring disgrace upon yourself. That discovery relieves, but scarcely removes my suspicions. I may forgive, but I can never forget his ingratitude to me "Wiles let them contrive who need, or when they need, not now." "Why should I play the Roman fool, and die on mine own sword?" "Swords I smile at, weapons laugh to scorn, brandished by man that's of a woman born." "What's Hecuba to him, or he to Hecuba?"

L. Sentences containing Elliptical Clauses.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study §§ 443, 557—564.

Exercise 136. Analyse the following sentences, having first supplied the words that are understood, in the way indicated in the first few examples. [Let the pupil study and practise these, till he can fill up the ellipses when the elliptical sentences are dictated.]

He looks as stupid as an owl [looks stupid]. He is not so clever as his brother [is clever]. I had rather die than [I would soon] endure such a disgrace. He is better to-day than [he was well] yesterday. It is better to die than [it is good] to live in such misery. I have as good a right to the money as you [have a good right to the money]. As [matters stand] for me, I will have nothing to do with it. Old† as he is [old] he is hale and hearty. He was so kind as [a man would be kind] to give me this book. He is as brave a man as [a brave man] ever lived. (That is, 'He is a man *in that degree* brave *in which degree* brave a man ever lived.) The boy played truant as [it is] usual. He stood aside so as [a man would stand aside] to let me pass. He looked as [he would look] if he could kill me. I'd rather be a dog and bay the moon than [I would soon be] such a Roman. He told me that wisdom is better than wealth [is good] as [he would tell me] if I did not know that before. I'll shed my dear blood drop by drop in the dust, but‡ I will raise the down-trod

* 'Which' object of the verb 'taste'; to be repeated as the object of the verb 'know.' 'Feels' and 'thinks' are intransitive.

† The logical intention of an attributive adjunct is often greater than its mere grammatical force. The full meaning here is:—"[Although he is so] old as he is [old]."

‡ The whole phrase, 'but I will—King' is an adverbial adjunct of 'will shed', consisting of a preposition ('but') followed by a substantive clause. The sense is:—'Leaving out the case that I will raise ——king (that is, 'in default of my raising . . . . king'), I'll shed my dear blood,' &c.

Mortimer as high in the air as this unthankful king [is high in the air]. An 'twere not as good a deed as [to] drink [is a good deed] to turn true man and leave these rogues, I am the veriest varlet that ever chewed with a tooth. If I were as tedious as a king [is tedious], I could find it* in my heart to bestow it all on your worship. He has no redeeming qualities whatever [redeeming qualities there are]. How could you make such a blunder as † [you made] to suppose (*i.e.*, in supposing) I did it. What [will happen] if I don't tell you? His wages as ‡ [he is] a labourer amount to twenty shillings a week.

Exercise 137. Analyse the following sentences, having first filled up the ellipses :—

I speak not as in absolute fear of you. Rather than be less, he cared not to be at all. What can be worse than to dwell here? Present fears are less than horrible imaginings. He died as one that had been studied in his death to throw away the dearest thing he owed (= owned), as 'twere a careless trifle. More is due than more than all can pay. Art thou not sensible to feeling as to sight. How could you make such a blunder as to suppose I did it? None could be found so bold as to oppose him. They dreaded not more the adventure than his voice forbidding. The people of Paris are much fonder of strangers that have money than of those that have wit. My pupil understood the art of guiding in money matters much better than I. He procured a room as near the prison as could conveniently be found. About him all the sanctities of Heaven stood thick as stars. He recommended me as a person very fit for a travelling tutor. He is as a great a rascal as ever lived. My feet are as cold as a stone. I never attend to such requests as that. The boy is more troublesome than ever. He is no happier than before. He is more agile than his brother, but not so strong. He is fonder of play than of work, but not so fond of play as of idleness. He is as tall a man as ever I saw. You are no worse off than your brother. Will you be so good as to lend me that knife? He was wiser than to risk his money in that undertaking. I am not such a fool as to do that. As to your proposal, I cannot assent to it. As to what you tell me, it passes belief. This is better than if we had lost everything. It is not so bad to suffer misfortune as to deserve it. He is better to-day than yesterday. He looked as if he could kill me. He spoke to me as if I were a thief. He told me that wisdom was better than wealth ; as if I did not know that before. With other notes than to the Orphean lyre I sang of chaos and eternal night. I should earn more as a crossing-sweeper. For none made sweeter melody than did the poor blind boy. Herein fortune shows herself more kind than is her custom. For myself alone I would not be so ambitious as to wish myself much better. He accompanied me as far as to the end of the street. When he is best, he is a little worse than a man ; and when he is worst, he is little better than a beast. Wisdom is ofttimes nearer when we stoop than when we soar. If time improve our wit as well as wine, say at what age a poet grows divine.

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* Provisional object, showing the construction of the real object 'to bestow,' &c.

† Take 'as' as doing duty for a relative pronoun (= 'which blunder'). See § 165.

‡ This construction is the counterpart (with a connective instead of a demonstrative adverb) of the use of '*so*' followed by a substantive clause to denote a condition or hypothesis (See Exercise 130). The full phrase is such as the following :—"*As I were a shepherdess*, I should be piped and sung to, *as a* dairy-wench, I would dance at maypoles" (*Ben Jonson, Cynth. Rev. IV. I.*).

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. Lightly and brightly breaks away
The morning from her mantle gray.

2. Right sharp and quick the bells all night
Rang out from Bristol town.

3. The gallant king, he skirted still
The margin of that mighty hill.

4. All alone by the side of the pool
A tall man sat on a three-legged stool,
Kicking his heels on the dewy sod,
And putting in order his reel and his rod.

5. The soul's dark cottage, battered and decayed,
Lets in new light through chinks that time has made.

6. His daily teachers had been woods and rills.

7. Love had he found in huts where poor men lie.

8. Waiting till the west wind blows,
The freighted clouds at anchor lie.

9. Here in cool grot and mossy cell
We rural fays and fairies dwell.

10. The sable mantle of the silent night
Shut from the world the ever-joysome light.

11. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
And all the air a solemn stillness holds,*
Save † where the beetle wheels his droning flight,
And drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds.

12. From yonder ivy-mantled tower
The moping owl does to the moon complain
Of such ‡ as, wand'ring near her secret bower,
Molest her ancient, solitary reign.

13. Beneath those rugged elms, that yew-tree's shade,
Where heaves the turf in many a mould'ring heap,
Each in his narrow cell for ever laid,§
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep.

14. Perhaps in this neglected spot is laid
Some heart once pregnant with celestial fire;
Hands that the rod of empire might have swayed,
Or waked to extasy the living lyre.

---

* Look carefully to see which is the subject here.
† Supply 'those regions' (or something of that kind). The last two lines form an adverbial adjunct modifying 'all'.
‡ Supply 'persons,' and take 'as' as a relative pronoun (§ 164).
§ Take 'each—laid' as a nominative absolute.

15. There, at the foot of yonder nodding beech,
That wreathes its old fantastic roots so high,
His listless length at noontide would he stretch,
And pore upon the brook that babbles by.

16. In climes beyond the solar road,
Where shaggy forms o'er ice-built mountains roam,
The Muse has broke the twilight gloom
To cheer the shiv'ring native's dull abode

17. There is a tide in the affairs of men
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune:
Omitted,* all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries.

18. Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne
In rayless majesty now stretches forth
Her leaden sceptre o'er a prostrate world.

19. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest (*i.e.*, 'for retiring,' &c.).

20. He that is down need fear no fall,
He that is low no pride.

21. Blow, blow, thou winter wind;
Thou art not so unkind
As man's ingratitude.†
Thy tooth is not so keen,
Because thou art not seen,
Although thy breath be rude.

22. Our sport shall be to take what‡ they mistake.

23. My hour is almost come,
When§ I to sulphurous and tormenting flames
Must render up myself.

24. But that‖ I am forbid
To tell the secrets of my prison house,
I could a tale unfold whose lightest word
Would harrow up thy soul.

25. We are not weak if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power.

26. Him the Almighty Power
Hurled headlong, flaming, from the ethereal sky
With hideous ruin and combustion down
To bottomless perdition.

27. He that fights and runs away,
May live to fight another day.

---

* Supply 'which' before 'omitted.' Then 'which omitted' is a nominative absolute, modifying the verb 'is bound,' and the whole sentence '[which] omitted—miseries' is a second adjective clause qualifying 'tide.'

† See § 560. ‡ See § 529. § See § 406. ‖ See § 524.

28. The evil that men do lives after them.

29. I am content so thou wilt have it so.

30. Now, night descending, the proud scene was o'er.

31. When they do choose
They have the wisdom by their wit to lose.

32. I must freely have the half of anything that this same paper brings you.

33. When I did first impart my love to you,
I freely told you [that] all the wealth [which] I had
Ran in these veins.

34. I would [that] you had won the fleece that he hath lost.

35. Duller should'st thou be than the fat weed,*
That roots itself in ease on Lethe wharf,
Would'st thou not stir in this.†

36. Thus do we of wisdom and of reach
With windlasses and with assays of bias
By indirections find directions out.

37. Their perfume lost,‡ take these again.

38. The great man down,‡ you mark his favourite flies;
The poor advanced makes friends of enemies.

39. How his audit stands,§ who knows, save Heaven?

40. Do you not come your tardy son to chide,
That, lapsed in time, and passion, lets‖ go by
The important acting of your dread command?

41. Lay not that flattering unction to your soul,
That¶ not your trespass, but my madness speaks.

42. The night is long that never finds the day.

43. How dangerous is it that this man goes loose (see § 516).

44. When sorrows come, they come not single spies,
But in battalions.

45. That we would do, we should do when we would (§ 459).

46. Breathes there the man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
'This is my own, my native land'?**

47. So may I, blind Fortune leading me,
Miss that which one unworthier may attain.

---

* See § 563. † See § 434. ‡ See § 370, 5.
§ See § 520. ‖ See § 395. ¶ See § 521.
** See § 367, 6. A quotation is not a dependent *clause*, it is merely a complex substantive. See § 403.

48. Benighted wanderers the forest o'er
Curse the saved candle and unopening door;
While the gaunt mastiff, growling at the gate,
Affrights the beggar whom he longs to eat.

49. He that claims either for himself or for another the honours of perfection, will surely injure the reputation he designs to assist (§ 459).

50. These honours peace to happy Britain brings.

51. Whilst light and colours rise and fly
Lives Newton's deathless memory (§ 551).

52. How* far the substance of my praise doth wrong this shadow in underprizing it, so far this shadow doth limp behind the substance.

53. If this will not suffice, it must appear that malice bears down truth.

54. It doth appear you are a worthy judge.

55. Repent† but you that you shall lose your friend,
And he repents not that he pays your debt.

56. Herein Fortune shows herself more kind than is her custom (§ 563).

57. Your wife would give you little thanks for that, if she were by to hear you make‡ the offer.

58. You take my house when you do take the prop
That doth sustain my house; you take my life
When you do take the means whereby I live.

59. I'll see if I can get my husband's ring, which I did make him swear to keep for ever. (*If = whether*).

60. You shall perceive them make a mutual stand,
Their savage eyes§ turned to a modest gaze
By the sweet power of music.

61. As fruits, ungrateful to the planter's care,
On savage stocks inserted, learn to bear,
The surest virtues thus from passions shoot,
Wild nature's vigour working at the root.

62. While from the purpling east departs
The star that led the dawn,
Blithe Flora from her couch upstarts,
For May is on the lawn.

---

* 'How' is here relative or conjunctive. The entire clause 'How—it' is co-ordinate with 'so' and is an adverbial adjunct to the 'far' that follows 'so.'
† A hypothetical clause without 'if.' Omit 'and' in the analysis.
‡ See § 397.
§ Nominative absolute, forming an adverbial adjunct to 'make.'

63. When through life unblest we rove,
Losing all that made life dear,
Should* some notes we used to love
In days of boyhood meet our ear,
Oh! how welcome breathes the strain!
Wakening thoughts that long have slept,
Kindling former smiles again
In fading eyes that long have wept.

64. In my former days of bliss
Her divine skill taught me this,
That† from everything I saw
I could some invention draw;
And raise pleasure to her height
Through the meanest object's sight.

65. Go, lovely rose;
Tell her that wastes her time and me,
That now she knows
When‡ I resemble her to thee
How sweet and fair she seems to be.

66. [He] Who thinks that Fortune cannot change her mind,
Prepares a dreadful jest for all mankind.

67. To friends, to fortune, to mankind a shame,§
Think how posterity will treat thy name;
And buy a rope, that future times may tell
Thou hast at least bestowed one penny well.

68. Shall one whom‖ Nature, learning, birth conspired
To form not to admire but be admired,
Sigh, while his Chloe, blind to wit and worth,
Weds the rich dulness of some son of earth?

69. Adieu! If this advice appear the worst,
E'en take the counsel which I gave you first;
Or, better precepts if you can impart,
Why¶ do; I'll follow them with all my heart.

70 You'd think [that] no fools disgraced the former reign,
Did** not some grave examples yet remain,
Who scorn [that] a lad should teach his father skill,
And having once been wrong will be so still.

---

* Hypothetical clause without 'if' modifying the verb 'breathes.' Supply 'which' before 'we used.'

† Substantive clause in apposition to 'this.' Supply the relative 'that' before 'I saw.' Before 'raise' repeat 'that I could.'

‡ The adverbial clause 'when—thee' modifies 'seems.'

§ In apposition to 'thou,' the suppressed subject of the imperative 'think.'

‖ A contracted compound Adjective Clause. Separate it into (1) 'Whom Nature—conspired not to form to admire.' (2) 'Whom Nature—conspired to form to be admired.'

¶ Take 'why' as an interjection. After 'do' supply 'impart better precepts.'

** Hypothetical clause without 'if.'

71. Had ancient times conspired to disallow
What then was new, what had been ancient now?

72. Of little use the man,* you may suppose,
Who says in verse what others say in prose.
Yet let me show a poet's of some weight,
And, though no soldier, useful to the State.

73. The zeal of fools offends at any time,
But most of all the zeal of fools in rhyme.†
Besides, a fate attends on all I write,
That,‡ when I aim at praise, they say I bite.

74. Then too we hurt ourselves, when to defend
A single verse we quarrel with a friend.

75. I heard a thousand blended notes,
While in a grove I sate reclined,
In that sweet mood when pleasant thoughts
Bring sad thoughts to the mind.

76. The nightly hunter, lifting a bright eye
Up towards the crescent moon, with grateful heart
Called on the lovely wanderer who bestowed
That timely light, to share his joyous sport.

77. But know we not that he who intermits
The appointed task and duties of the day,
Untunes full oft the pleasures of the day,
Checking the finer spirits, that refuse
To flow, when purposes are lightly changed?

78. Yet I will praise Thee with impassioned voice.
My lips, that may forget Thee in the crowd,
Cannot forget Thee here, where Thou hast built
For Thy own glory in the wilderness.

79. In sooth, with love's familiar privilege
You have decried the wealth that is your own.
Among these rocks and stones methinks I see
More than the heedless impress that belongs
To lonely nature's casual work.

80. Verily, methinks,
Wisdom is oft-times nearer when we stoop
Than when we soar.

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* In full—'You may suppose that the man is of little use,' &c.
† That is 'the zeal of fools expressed in rhyme.'
‡ A substantive clause in apposition to 'fate.'

FAULTY SENTENCES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for each correction:—

1. You and me will take a walk (§ 287).
2. Let you and I take a walk (§§ 191, 395).
3. The effluvia was disgusting (§ 57).
4. The intention of these persons are uncertain (§ 374).
5. Six months' interest are due (§ 374).
6. Neither John nor Henry were at church (§ 386).
7. Either he or I are in fault (§ 386).
8. Neither of them are better than they ought to be (§ 175).
9. Our own conscience, and not other men's opinions, constitute our responsibility (§ 374).
10. John is a better writer than me (§ 487).
11. Is he older than her? (§ 487).
12. Where was you all last night? (§ 374).
13. What signifies promises without performance? (§ 374).
14. "How pale each worshipful and reverend guest
Rise from a clergy or a city feast!" (§ 175).
15. Every man and boy showed their joy by clapping their hands (§ 175).
16. No sound but their own voices were heard (§ 374).
17. Good order and not mean savings produce great profit (§ 374).
18. Are either of those pens yours? (§ 175).
19. Let each esteem other better than themselves (§ 175).
20. Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets' are reprinting (§ 376).
21. Nor want nor cold his course delay (§ 386).
22. There are many ways of dressing a calves' head.
23. You did not ought to do that (§§ 184, 231).
24. He was one of the wisest men that has ever lived (§§ 447, 374).
25. In modern English two negatives destroy one another.
26. Everybody has their faults (§ 175).
27. Having finished the chapter the volume was shut (§§ 351, 362).
28. He is not one of those who interferes in matters that do not concern him (§ 24).
29. I do not like those kind of things.
30. What sort of a man is he?
31. This is the greatest error of all the rest (§ 109).
32. "'Twas Love's mistake, who fancied what it feared" (§ 464).

33. Homer as well as Virgil were studied on the banks of the Rhine (§ 386).
34. There is sometimes more than one auxiliary to a verb (§ 374).
35. Nothing but grave and serious studies delight him (§ 374).
36. Who do you think I met this morning? (§ 366).
37. Whom do you think called on me yesterday? (§ 379).
38. He is a man whom I think deserves encouragement (§ 379).
39. Such a man as him would never say that (§ 487).
40. The fleet are under orders to sail (§ 376).
41. The peasantry wears blouses (§ 376).
42. I have read the second and third chapter (§ 454).
43. Nor eye nor listening ear an object find (§ 386).
44. I, whom nor avarice nor pleasure move (§ 386).
45. Not you but John are in fault (§ 374).
46. Parliament have been prorogued (§ 376).
47. A numerous party were assembled (§ 376).
48. Shakspere is greater than any dramatist.
49. He is the most admired of all the other dramatists (§ 109).
50. These kind of people are my abhorrence.
51. He wore a large and a very shabby hat (§ 454).
52. Can you see a red and white flag? I can see neither (§ 454).
53. A hot and cold spring were found near each other (§ 454).
54. The love of drink is of all other follies the most pernicious (§ 109).
55. Call at Smith's the bookseller's (§ 72).
56. My friend, him whom I had treated like a brother, has turned against me (§ 448, 2).
57. This injury has been done me by my friend, he whom I treated like a brother (§ 450, 3).
58. He told John and I to come with him (§ 287).
59. Between you and I, he is a great fool (§ 287).
60. Who can this letter be from? (§ 277).
61. *Men* are put in the plural because they are many.
62. His father's and his brother's lives were spared.
63. He was angry at me asking him the question (§ 484).
64. What is the use of you talking like that? (§ 484).
65. Somebody told me, I forget whom (§ 487).
66. I heard that from somebody or other, I forget who (§ 487).
67. Divide that cake between you four.
68. There is nothing to show who that belongs to (§ 277).
69. A versifier and poet are two different things (§ 454).

70. I cannot tell you how much pains have been spent on him.
71. I wish to cultivate a further acquaintance with you.
72. I do not know who to send (§ 366).
73. Whom do men say that he is? (§ 379).
74. Who do men declare him to be? (§ 394).
75. I little thought it was him (§ 394).
76. I feel coldly this morning (§ 393).
77. She looked cold on her lover (§ 393).
78. They seemed to be nearly dressed alike.
79. He is not only famous for his riches, but for his wisdom (§ 440).
80. A nation has no right to violate the treaties they have made (§ 464).
81. A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a book (§§ 464, 386).
82. Nobody in their senses would have done that (§ 464).
83. She sings bettter than me (§ 487).
84. I have my aunt, my uncle, and my father's leave (§ 449).
85. He did no more than it was his duty to have done.
86. The fact of you having said so is enough for me (§ 484).
87. You have weakened instead of strengthened your case (§ 278).
88. He raved like one out of their mind (§ 464).
89. The Atlantic separates the Old and New World (§ 454).
90. Here lies John Brown, born Jan. 1, 1824, died Sept. 5, 1874 (§ 378).
91. When will we get there? (§§ 209, 210).
92. He has not yet began his exercise (§ 226).
93. These flowers smell very sweetly (§ 393).
94. This is the greatest misfortune that ever has or could happen to me (§ 440).
95 Each strives to cheat the other in their own way (§§ 175, 464).
96. It is me that say so (§ 461).
97. It is I that he fears (§ 461).
98. I would like to see him (§§ 209, 210).
99. I think I will be gone by the time you come (*ib.*).
100. Nobody gives so much trouble as he does.
101. Sincerity is as valuable, and even more so, as knowledge (440).
102. He was as rich or even richer than his father (§ 440).
103. I hoped to immediately succeed.
104. I expected to have been at home when you called.
105. He not only ought but shall do it (§ 440).

106. While walking in my garden, an idea suddenly occurred to me.
107. Let us not increase our hardships by dissensions among each other.
108. This dedication may serve for almost any book that has, is, or shall be published (§ 440).
109. Doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the wilderness and seeketh that which is gone astray? (§ 440).
110. The centres of each compartment are ornamented with a star (§ 175).
111. Valérie's was one of those impulsive, eager natures that longs for a confidante (§ 456).
112. The service was impressive, but it lacked either grandeur or beauty.
113. More than one emperor prided himself upon his skill as a swordsman (§ 456).
114. His younger days were spent in England, waiting for an opportunity to get to France (§ 362, 1).
115. Hoping to hear from you soon, believe me yours truly, J. B. (§ 362, 1).
116. No civil broils have since his death arose (§ 226).
117. We trust that by supplying a genuine and most superior class of article, to increase the confidence so many years bestowed on Mr. M.
118. When I get home I see the being than whom nobody in the world loves another as I love her (§ 487).
119. O Thou my voice inspire,
Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire (§ 456).
120. For ever in this humble cell,
Let thee and I, my fair one, dwell (§§ 287, 366).
121. These plantations are lain out by rule and line (§ 226).
122. Severe the doom that length of days impose (§ 456).
123. Profusion as well as parsimony are to avoided.
124. Let the same be she that thou has appointed (§ 394).
125. Of all men else I have avoided thee.
126. It is no use talking so.
127. He wrote a moderately sized volume.
128. He drew a line of about six inches long (§ 278).
129. I was going to have written him a letter.
130. Regard is to be had to every one's circumstances, healths and abilities.
131. The Thames is derived from the Latin *Thamesis*.
132. He is a boy of nine years old (§ 287).
133. In reading you should sit as uprightly as possible.
134. He made another joke which she did not hear, and had bettter be suppressed (§ 439).
135. I can tell you this much.
136. He has only done that much of his task.

APPENDIX.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND POTENTIAL MOODS.

THE account of the Subjunctive Mood given in the present work involves nothing which will be found new or strange by any one acquainted with what has been said on the subject by such grammarians as Becker, Mätzner, Madvig, Kühner, Key, Roby, Peile, &c. The statements found in most of our current English grammars are quite worthless.

The following considerations are important :—

1. It is absolutely necessary to keep clearly in view what it is that we are talking about. There is a wonderful amount of confusion on this point. The 'Indicative Mood' and the 'Subjunctive Mood' are not certain *modes of using verbs*, but certain *groups of verbal forms*. Such forms as *sum*, *est*, *amo*, *monebo*, *audivi*, &c., in Latin ; *bin*, *hast*, *liebt*, *sprach*, &c., in German ; *was*, *has*, *am*, *is*, &c., in English, belong to the Indicative group, and are *Indicative*, whatever may be the construction in which they are found. Such forms as *sim*, *esset*, *amem*, *audiverim*, &c., in Latin ; *sey*, *wäre*, *habest*, *spräche*, &c., in German ; [*he*] *be*, [*I*] *were*, [*thou*] *have*, and certain compound tenses, made up of subjunctive forms of the auxiliary verbs, *may*, *might*, *should*, and *would*, in English, belong to the Subjunctive group. *Verb-forms* may belong to the one or the other of these groups, but cannot possibly belong to both.* To talk of an 'Indicative-Subjunctive form,' is like talking of a 'round-square hole.' The 'force of dulness' could hardly 'go further' than setting down '*if I am*,' '*if I was*,' &c., as the Subjunctive Mood of the verb *to be*. Yet the absurdity will be found perpetrated in not a few English grammars.

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* This remark is not invalidated by the fact that in the course of time the *distinctive marks* of the two moods have often got worn away by use, so that we sometimes cannot tell by the mere form which mood we are dealing with. The difference of grammatical function has never ceased to exist. So when we say 'He is a *fast* runner,' and 'He runs *fast*,' we are using the same group of letters in each case, but we are not using the same word. We have an adjective in the first sentence, and an adverb in the second. Or again, in dealing with 'I *have*,' 'we *have*,' 'I shall *have*,' it would be a gross blunder to parse *have* in the same way in all. A German gold piece and an English sovereign might become so worn by use as to be undistinguishable in appearance, but they would never cease to be different coins, and the circumstances in which they were used might enable us to distinguish them with certainty.

2. The account given of the Subjunctive Mood must be such as to apply to the earlier forms and usages of the language as well as the later. The group of forms which belong to the Subjunctive Mood are more sparingly used now than they used to be; but as regards their nature and functions they have never changed.

3. In ascertaining the true force and function of the Subjunctive Mood, we are not only permitted, but bound to take account of the usages of German, Latin, and other languages of the Aryan family. The fundamental ideas upon which the distinctions of mood are based (like those which relate to the functions of the parts of speech, of numbers, persons, voices, tenses, cases, &c.), are common to English and Latin, and as March observes (*Anglo-Saxon Grammar*, § 421), "The Teutonic Subjunctive has the general range of the Latin Subjunctive."

4. The ascertainment of the functions of the group of forms called 'Subjunctive' can only be effected by examination and comparison of instances of their *actual use*. We are not in the slightest degree bound by the signification of the name which these forms happen to bear. That name, like many other grammatical terms in use, is nothing more than a record of the attempts of the early Greek and Roman grammarians to classify and explain the forms that they met with. These attempts were rarely very successful. They were based upon a very imperfect knowledge of the facts of language, and were often clumsy and capricious. The name *Subjunctive* was a particularly unfortunate one. It does not in the least degree explain what the force of this particular group of forms is, which makes them proper for use in certain kinds* of subjoined clauses, while it has betrayed many into the ridiculous mistake of supposing that we get (or at least ought to get) a *Subjunctive Mood* whenever we have a verb used in a *subjoined clause*.

5. The learner must bear in mind that a word or a grammatical form hardly ever *expresses* the whole of the signification which is attached to it in each of its different uses, but only something much wider and vaguer. To this vague sense that underlies *all* the uses, the intelligence of the speaker or hearer, guided by the sense of the connection in which the word or form occurs, attaches in each special case various *accessory notions*, by which the general sense is differentiated into its particular applications.† We shall go entirely wrong if we

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* It is perfectly true (as is explained in the text of the grammar, § 192) that a predication which is matter of *conception* only has in most cases no meaning except as it is related to some other predication. Consequently it may be laid down as a general rule that forms of the Subjunctive group are only to be found in *complex sentences*, either in the main clause, or in the subjoined clause, or in both. But it is very bad logic to treat this as equivalent to saying that none but Subjunctive forms can be used in subjoined clauses. The Indicative Mood is as common as possible in such constructions. Thus, "I know that he *is* my rival"; "I did not come because I *was* not asked"; "Ut *lubet* quod tibi *lubet* fac, quoniam pugnis plus *vales*" (Plaut. *Amph.*). But in all such subordinate clauses something is spoken of which belongs to the sphere of actual fact.

† Thus in 'He broke his leg,' 'He broke his word,' 'He broke the bank,' a different group of accessory notions is attached to the word *broke* in each case. It is obvious that they are not *expressed* by the word. If they were, 'he broke' would tell us all that we wanted to

attempt to regard the *whole* sense that is attached to a word or form in *one* use, as essential to it in *every* use.

6. It will be found stated in the great majority of English grammars that the function of the Subjunctive Mood is to express uncertainty,* or to state an action conditionally. The learner must disabuse his mind of the idea that the Subjunctive Mood is necessary for either of these purposes, or always effects them. Both *uncertainty* and *conditionality* may be expressed by means of the Indicative Mood, when the *uncertainty* or the *condition* has reference to *actual facts*. When I say "The man deserves to be hanged," I make an *unconditional* statement. When I say "If the man is guilty, he deserves to be hanged," I make a *conditioned* (or *conditional*) assertion, *i.e.* an assertion made *subject to the previous admission* of another proposition, *of the truth of which I am uncertain.* The case is precisely the same with such Latin sentences as "Tute scis si modo meministi, me tibi tum dixisse," &c., 'You know, if only you remember,' &c. (Cic. *Att.* xii. 18); or "Ego si bonam famam mihi servasso, sat erō dives," 'I shall be rich enough, if only I preserve my good name' (Plaut. *Most.* 228); or "Aequitas tollitur omnis, si habere suum cuique non licet," 'All justice is abolished, if it is not permitted to each to have his own' (Cic. *Off.* ii. 22). Examples of this kind may be multiplied *ad libitum*. They effectually dispose of the assertion that the Subjunctive is necessary to express *conditionality* or *uncertainty*.

Of course everybody knows that the Subjunctive Mood is employed in some sorts of conditional statements. Thus, 'If he *were* wise, he *would act* differently'; "Wenn er reicher *wäre*, *wäre* er nicht glücklicher" ('If he were richer, he would not be happier'); "Tu si hic *sis* aliter *sentias*" (*Terence.* 'If you were in my place, you would think differently'); "Si scissem in quo periculo esses, statim ad te *advolassem*" ('If I *had known* in what danger you were, I *would have flown* to you at once'). Here we have a set of conditional propositions expressed by means of the Subjunctive Mood. They differ from those in which the Indicative was used in this respect, they do not involve a supposition respecting some *matter of fact* of which we are uncertain, but what is supposed is dealt with merely as a *matter of conception*.† In some cases the supposition is obviously at variance with the known fact.‡

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know about the action, and the three *different* uses would be impossible. So the ablative case in Latin does not by itself *express* the *time* of an action, or the *instrument* of an action, or some *quality* of a thing, but only the much vaguer notion of *attendant circumstance*, which is shaped by the intelligence according to circumstances (*i.e.* according to the suggestions of the context) into its various special applications.

* Some writers forget that *uncertainty* is in all cases a *condition of our minds*, not an attribute of events. A thing is 'uncertain' when *we are not sure* about it.

† Observe that this is not always the same thing as *denying* that what is supposed has to do with the world of *actuality*, it sometimes merely implies that for the purpose in hand we do not deal with it in that sense.

‡ In such cases it would be ridiculous to maintain that the Subjunctive expresses *uncertainty*, for we know quite well what the fact is or was.

It is of prime importance to have it clearly understood that the Subjunctive Mood is not essential to the expression of a hypothesis or condition, but that the Indicative is the proper mood for a conditional statement when the subject dealt with belongs to the sphere of actual fact, independent of the thought of the speaker, while the Subjunctive is the proper mood for a conditional statement when the subject dealt with is matter of conception, because many grammars of repute abound with incorrect statements on this point,* and no advance towards a correct understanding of the matter can be made till the misconception referred to has been cleared away. When, however, we have gained a perception of the true import of the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods respectively, we are able to deal with a great variety of constructions about which writers who make the mistake referred to find it convenient to say nothing.

Thus in Latin *quod* (because) is followed by the Indicative when the *actual* reason of an action or event is described, but by the Subjunctive when the writer (or speaker) states a reason which is only *thought of* by him, either because it was not the real reason, or because he brings it forward as *somebody else's reason.* Thus "Succensui ei magis quod me consilii sui certiorem non *fecerat* quam quod consilium ipsum *inivisset*" (*Cicero*) : 'I blamed him more because he had not informed me of his design (*real* reason), than because he had entered upon the design itself' (reason denied, and therefore only *thought of*). "Laudat Panaetius Africanum quod fuerit abstinens" (*Cicero*) : 'Panaetius praises Africanus for being abstinent' (a reason which, though real to Panaetius, is not vouched for by Cicero, and therefor is to him a *matter of conception* only).

Another instructive illustration is given by constructions with *antequam* and *priusquam* (*before*) or *donec* (*until*). When the object

* The following quotation is from an English grammar, regarded by many as a work of authority :—"Some circumstances in the manner of an action have also been embodied in the changes made in the root-verb. For example, when an action is stated not absolutely, but conditionally, the verb is differently modified, and a series of tenses is formed for present, past, future, complete and incomplete, of the conditional verb. This is the Subjunctive Mood, which exists in full force in the old languages, but is a mere remnant in ours. The machinery is too great for the occasion ; we find that conditionality can be given by a conjunction—*if*, or *though*—and need not be repeated in the verb." This statement is wrong from the beginning to the end. It is (to start with) a mistake to speak of *conditionality* as a circumstance in the *manner* of an action. 'Ifs' and 'thoughs' mark relations of *thoughts*, but not relations of actions or events. Our mental attitude with regard to an action or event is no part of the *manner* of the action itself. Again, the passage distinctly implies that in the old languages (Latin, for example) that set of verb forms called the Subjunctive Mood was regularly employed to express conditionality ('exists in full force') ; or, in other words, that the Subjunctive regularly follows *si* in Latin. Nothing can be farther from the truth, as has been shown above. Further, it is said that *we* (in contrast to the Romans, Anglo-Saxons, Germans &c.), having made the happy discovery that 'conditionality can be given by a conjunction,' save ourselves the trouble of repeating it in the verb. On this it is to be remarked that the Romans, &c., had already made this discovery, and were aware that conditionality (supposition or concession) was *altogether* expressed by the conjunction, and that when they used a Subjunctive Mood after the conjunction, it was not to do a second time what had been sufficiently done already, but to do something which no conjunction could effect—namely, show that the conditional statement had relation to *matter of conception*, and not to *matter of fact.* Lastly, with regard to our supposed 'discovery,' there are still cases in which the Subjunctive *must* be used after *if* and *though*, as "If he *were* as rich as Crœsus, he would not be content."

is to state that of *two actual facts* one precedes, or lasts up to the other, the Indicative is used. "Antequam tuas *legi* literas, hominem ire cupiebam" (*Cicero*). "Haud desinam donec *perfecero*" (*Terence*). But if a certain event has only a *conceived* relation of priority to some other, which may or may not happen according to circumstances, the Subjunctive is used. Thus "Numidae priusquam ex castris *subveniretur* in proximos colles decedunt" (*Sallust*), 'The Numidians withdrew onto the nearest hills before reinforcements *should come* from the camp' (an event which possibly might not happen at all, and therefore is only *thought of*).

It is obvious directly why the Subjunctive is used to express *purpose*.* An action that is *intended* is necessarily, in that aspect, one that is only *thought of*. In Latin *consequence* was also expressed by means of the Subjunctive, the result being treated merely in its *conceived consequential relation* to the antecedent event, without taking its actual occurrence into account, just as when we say in English "He was so exhausted *as to be unable to stand*," where the actual fact that he was unable to stand *is not asserted*, but is left to be inferred (see Roby, *Lat. Gr.* § 1499).

Another remarkable illustration of the true function of the Subjunctive is seen when it is used in a subordinate clause to give *a general statement* of some circumstance or condition connected with an event, without asserting *definite instances* of the actual occurrence of the circumstance or condition in question. Thus "Bonus segnior fit *ubi neglegas*" (*Sallust*), 'The good man becomes more supine when you *neglect him*.' The Indicative *neglegis* would have implied that the 'you' in question was some individual actually addressed by the writer, and that there were certain definite, actual instances on his part of the neglect in question. So when the Indicative follows a relative pronoun, the clause makes a statement of actual fact respecting some *definite* person or persons whom the relative represents, but when the Subjunctive is used, the clause becomes *the general description of a type*. Thus "Hoc non erat ejus qui innumerabiles mundos mente peragravisset" (*Cicero*), 'This was not becoming to one who had traversed innumerable worlds in thought.' Here the statement is made, not of a single individual, but generally of any one who might answer to the description. The Indicative would have tied down the statement to a particular individual, as a matter of actual fact. So in "Abiit consul ut quem nemo *metueret*," the writer describes a *type*. *Metuebat* would have restricted the clause to a definite individual, of whom (as a matter of fact) nobody was afraid. Instances of this sort must not be confounded with universal assertions, in which definite matter of fact is asserted of each and all of a certain class.

In Anglo-Saxon, as in Latin, the Subjunctive Mood was used when

* The Latin grammars sometimes speak of *ut* or *qui* expressing purpose. That is absurd. *Qui* (who) can no more express purpose than 'I' or 'Thou.' The purpose is expressed, so far as it is expressed at all, by the mood of the verb. In reality it is only the groundwork of the idea of purpose which is *expressed* by the mood; the *special shape* which is given to this fundamental idea is the work of the intelligence acting on the materials presented to it,

the purpose of an action had to be stated.* Thus "Đá sende he hine to his tune þæt he *healde* hys swýn" (*Luke* xv.), 'Then sent he him to his farm that he should keep his swine.' It is also used (as in Latin) to express *consequence*.

The use of this mood in conditional clauses corresponds to the Latin usage. Thus "Gif mec hild *nime*" (*Beowulf* 452), 'In case battle *should take* me.' "Gif þu *wǽre* hér nǽre min bróðor deád" (*John* xi. 32), 'If thou hadst been here, my brother would not have been dead.'

The use of the Subjunctive in Anglo-Saxon is even wider than in Latin. It is employed not only in dependent questions, but also in a *reported* statement of fact or opinion, for which the reporter does not vouch. Thus "He sægde þæt Sarra his sweostor wære," 'He said that Sara was (*were*) his sister' (*Caedmon*). But if the reporter vouches for the fact reported, the Indicative is used, as "þá he gehýrde þæt he seóc wæs," 'When he heard that he was sick' (*John* xi. 6).

The Subjunctive is used in Anglo-Saxon, as in Latin, to describe a *potential class*, that is, one which is merely constituted by the definition (as something *thought of*), and not by relation to some actual fact. Thus: "Se þe hæbbe eáran to gehýranne gehýre," 'Whoso hath (*have*) ears to hear, let him hear' (*Mark* iv. 9). The usage is similar in Chaucer as "Whoso *wole* my juggement withseie" (*Prol.* 805); "But it *were* any person obstinat, What so he *were* of high or lowe estat" (521).

The normal use of the Subjunctive which has been described above has been subjected to two contrary tendencies.

1. Our earlier writers often employ the Subjunctive in hypothetical statements when the Indicative would have been strictly proper, there being a natural temptation to treat all hypotheses as dealing with matters of conception. Thus we sometimes find it used not only in putting a *general case*, when it is strictly correct (as in "But if he *be* a robber, if he *have* eaten upon the mountains, if he *have* oppressed the poor and needy, *have* spoiled by violence, *have* not restored the pledge . . . shall he live?"—*Ezek.* xviii.), but even in treating of actual fact in an individual instance. Thus "If the young gentleman *have* done offence, I take the fault on me" (Shaksp. *Tw. N.* iii. iv. 343). So also the priority of one fact to another is often treated in its *conceptive* instead of in its *real* aspect. Thus "Ic wæs ǽr þam þe Abraham *wǽre*," 'I was before Abraham *were*' (*John* viii. 58). So in Chaucer, 'Er it *were* day' (*Kn. T.* 182). But

2. The tendency of modern usage is all in the opposite direction. We have grown impatient of the subtle distinction involved in the use of the Subjunctive Mood, and have substituted the Indicative for the Subjunctive in many constructions in which the latter was once usual, and certainly more correct. Instead of 'He that *have* ears to hear,' we

* It has already been pointed out that it is not accurate to say that the Subjunctive Mood *expresses* purpose. Its function falls short of this; but what it leaves undone is supplemented by the intelligence of the reader or hearer.

say 'He that *hath* ears to hear'; instead of 'He said that he *were* sorry,' we say 'He said that he *was* sorry'; instead of 'If it *be* fine to-morrow,' we say 'If it *is* fine,' and so on. Some even use such expressions as 'If it *was* possible I would grant your request.' It is to be hoped that their example will not be widely imitated. The point to be observed is that all this is not simply the disuse of a superfluous set of forms. It is a partial disregard of a certain delicate distinction between two types of predication, and the consequent disuse of the varieties of form by which the distinction is marked. In so far as we have ceased to use Subjunctive forms it has been because we have ceased to take the trouble to form the ideas which the Subjunctive Mood expresses. But though we now use the mood more sparingly than formerly, when it is used its function is just the same as ever. There are writers, however, who jumble together sentences of the old type with sentences of the modern type, and treat them as though both these different forms of expression were intended to represent precisely the same form of thought.

It is necessary to caution the learner that the Subjunctive Mood has not disappeared from our language to so great an extent as is sometimes represented. In the Preterite tense of most verbs, it is true, there is now no difference of form between the Indicative and the Subjunctive. But this is not because the Subjunctive forms have been assimilated to the Indicative forms, but because the distinctive marks of *both* have vanished. It is rather arbitrary to assign what is left to the Indicative Mood exclusively, and to say that the other mood has disappeared. The converse process would be just as reasonable. We still preserve a clear sense of the difference of function. If we compare 'I *could* not do it when I *tried*' and 'I *could* not do it if I *tried*,' our consciousness of the difference in import is brought out the moment we attempt to substitute equivalents that differ in form. *Could* in the first means *was not able*. We see instantly that we cannot substitute this in the second. This makes us aware that *could* is not the same word in the second sentence as in the first. (See again the note on p. 244.)

Another point that the learner must keep in mind is, that in modern English complex forms made up of *may*, *might*, *should*, and *would*, have superseded the old simple forms (see the text of the Grammar, § 192). But he must beware of supposing that he has got a Subjunctive Mood whenever he has got one of these complex forms. Very often the mood is the Indicative. Thus: "You may leave off work," = 'You *are permitted*,' &c. "That *may* be so," = 'It *is possible* that that is so.' "He would not open the door when I knocked," = 'It *was not his will* to open the door,' &c. "He said that I might come in," = 'That it was permitted to me to come in.' It is only when the auxiliary verb is itself in the Subjunctive Mood, and has lost its notional significance, that we get a subjunctive complex tense.

THE POTENTIAL MOOD

The so-called Potential Mood is the product of a series of blunders and misconceptions, and has been discarded by all the best authorities. "I can write" or "I must write" is not a *mood* at all in the sense in which 'I write,' 'I should write,' or 'Write [thou],' is a mood. If you take a subject (say 'John'), and a verb (say 'write'), when the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative Mood is used, the *act of writing* is predicated of John in some manner, affirmatively or negatively, as matter of fact, as matter of conception, or as matter of volition. But if we say 'John can write,' or 'John must write,' we predicate of John not *writing*, but the *ability* to write, or the *obligation* to write, which is a totally different affair.* Nobody thinks of giving the name 'Potential Mood' to such combinations as 'Scribere possum,' 'γράφειν δύναμαι,' 'Ich kann schreiben,' or 'Je puis écrire.' Its retention in English grammar is anomalous and absurd.

The history of its introduction may be clearly traced. The Greek grammarians led the way by setting down the Optative as a mood distinct from the Subjunctive. The Subjunctive and Optative of Greek grammar really differ from each other merely as *faciam* and *facerem* differ in Latin. They are the verbal forms for conceptive predication associated respectively with present time and with past time,† and do not really constitute different moods at all. Priscian and other Latin grammarians thought they must follow the Greeks in the use of these two names, although both the present and the past forms of the Subjunctive in Latin may be used to express a wish, and accordingly they set down a *Modus Optativus*, as well as a *Modus Subjunctivus*; but in doing this they merely gave *two names* to identically *the same set of forms*, one to be applied when these forms served one purpose, the other when they served other purposes. The Greeks were at least free from this blunder, for they gave their two names to two distinct groups of forms. Lily and his followers, who made our old Latin grammars for us, made confusion worse confounded by giving *three* names (*Optative*, *Potential*, and *Subjunctive*) to the same set of forms, according to the mode in which they were employed. The term 'Potential,' however, was simply one of the *aliases* of the Latin Subjunctive.

The early writers of English grammars did little more than adapt Lily's system with as little change as possible to English, and so our forms for conceptive predication inherited the same *aliases* that were current in the Latin grammars. Some persons, indeed, did not find three names enough for them. Thus Maittaire, after stating that there are three finite moods in English, the 'Indicative,' the 'Imperative,' and the 'Potential,' goes on to say: "The Potential is named

* When we say "I will leave off that I *may* not *weary* you," or "I will leave off lest I *should weary* you," *may* and *should* make no predication of *permission* or *obligation*. They have sunk into mere mood-signs, and the *act of wearying* is predicated directly of 'me.'

† Kühner (in his Greek Grammar) was among the first to bring this point out clearly and conclusively.

sometimes 'Subjunctive' or 'Conjunctive,' because it is joined to another sentence by some word or particle, sometimes 'Optative,' sometimes 'Dubitative.'" But the point to be observed is that the terms 'Potential' and 'Subjunctive' denoted not different sets of forms, but different uses of the same set of forms.

Unhappily some wiseacre or other, finding that English had two classes of forms for expressing conceptive predication, the older simple forms, and the later forms made with auxiliaries, and that two names for these were in use—Subjunctive and Potential—hit upon the bright idea of calling the simple forms 'Subjunctive,' and the compound forms 'Potential,' and setting them down as distinct moods; and this was followed by the monstrous blunder of extending the name Potential to all combinations of the verbs *may*, *can*, *must*, *shall*, &c., even though these verbs were used in the Indicative Mood, and with their full notional sense. When we say, 'I can swim,' 'He must wait,' 'He would not come when I called him,' 'He could not do it when he tried,' 'You may leave off work,' we have direct statements of fact, and *can*, *must*, *would*, *could*, *may* are in the *Indicative* Mood. These verbs help to make up a subjunctive or conceptive form only when they are themselves in the Subjunctive Mood, as was long ago pointed out by Lowth in his English Grammar.

The whole history of the Potential Mood illustrates what has been termed 'the gigantic power of impregnable stupidity,' and justifies the sarcasm of Scaliger: "Grammaticis nullus finis ineptiendi."

AUXILIARY AND NOTIONAL VERBS.

In the following examples the verbs *shall*, *will*, &c., are not auxiliary, but *notional* verbs.

A. *Indicative.*—Thou *shalt* not kill. I *will* know the reason (*i.e.*, I am resolved to know). You *may* come in now, but you *must* be quiet. I *could* not come earlier. He *can* play the violin. He tells me that he *can* swim. How *could* you *do* such a thing? You *would* not have my help when I offered it. We *did* the best we *could*. I *can*not always *do* what I *will*. He *would* not accept my offer when he *might*. I *must do* what I *can*. "So loving to my mother that he *might* not beteem (*i.e.*, *could* not allow) the winds of heaven visit her face too roughly." He *might* be seen every day on the parade (*i.e.*, it was possible to see him every day). You have done that you *should* be sorry for (which *it is your duty* to be sorry for).

B. *Subjunctive.*—I wish I *could* (*i.e.*, *were able* to) believe that. *Might* I but through my prison once a day behold this maid (*i.e.*, *were it but possible*, &c.). You *might* have heard a pin drop (*i.e.*, it *would have been possible* for you to hear). I *might* not this believe without the sensible and true avouch of mine own eyes (*i.e.*, I *should not be able* to believe, &c.). You *might* do (*would be able to do*) it easily if you tried. I *could* do (*should be able* to do) it if I tried. I told him he *might* come (*would be permitted*), if he liked.

In the following examples the words in Italics are auxiliary verbs, *i.e.*, they are exclusively or mainly **tense-signs** or **mood-signs,** though they sometimes retain a flavour of their original meaning.

A. *Indicative.*—We *shall* set out to-morrow. I *will* come to you directly. You *shall* hear all about it when I see you. We *will* come back presently. We *did* not hear a sound. *Do* you believe that? You *do* assist the storm. We *shall* be punished for this.

B. *Subjunctive.*—I am come that I *may* help you. I came that I *might* help you. I hope he *may* succeed. We prayed that he *might* return safe. I *should* be sorry if I vexed you. He *would* have been glad to hear of my failure. I did not call again lest you *might* think me troublesome. He *would* easily gain the prize if he tried. Oh! that I *might* hear his voice. Don't you wish you *may* get it? I was afraid that the dog *might* bite me. I have sent you the books that you *may* examine them. They travelled all night that they *might* arrive in time. It *would* be a pity if that were the case. *May* you live long and happily. Oh! that I *might* see him once more.

CARDINAL NUMERALS.

The Cardinal Numerals present some perplexing problems. How are the words *hundred*, *thousand*, *score* and *dozen* to be treated? They were originally nouns, and are still used as such in some constructions at any rate, as when we say "Many hundreds of pounds were spent;" "Dozens of bales were sold." But such a phrase as 'a hundred sheep' is not so easy. In Anglo-Saxon the noun 'sheep' would be in the genitive plural. Are we to consider that the construction is still essentially the same, only that the 'of' which would represent the genitive has been suppressed? If so, 'hundred' is the substantive word, and 'sheep' must be taken as a limiting or attributive adjunct to it. But various analogies indicate that in the present stage of the language we should be justified in considering that numerals like 'a hundred,' 'three hundred,' 'three score,' &c., have passed into the same class as 'twenty,' &c., and are to be treated as numeral adjuncts of the noun that follows them, notwithstanding their originally substantive nature. In this we should be doing no more than repeat what has been done in the case of *twenty*, *sixty*, &c., for these words also were originally substantives, the syllable *-ty* being the relic of a noun meaning 'a decade' or 'a lot of ten.' In Anglo-Saxon such numerals were sometimes treated and declined as substantives. So in Latin, *mille* is sometimes a substantive, sometimes an adjective; *centum*, i.e., *decentum* = *the tenth* [*decade*], though apparently a substantive in the neuter gender, is used as an indeclinable adjective, and its compounds *ducenti*, &c., are regularly declined as adjectives. It is perhaps best to consider that when 'of' follows any of these words

hundred, *dozen*, &c., or when they are used in the plural, they are to be dealt with as substantives, but that when there is no 'of' (as in 'a hundred men,' 'threescore years,' 'two dozen knives,') they are to be regarded as adjectives, or at all events as attributive adjuncts of the noun that follows.

In the sentence 'He is well' some writers set down 'well' as an adjective. There is no good reason for this. The form of the question 'How is he?' where 'how' is an adverb, shows that an adverb would be quite proper in the answer. We find adverbs in such phrases as 'He is *poorly*,' 'He is but *so-so*,' &c. As 'well' is an adverb in all other constructions, it should be treated as an adverb in 'He is well.' This use of an adverb with the verb 'to be' to express the *condition* in which a person is, is common in other languages. (Compare the French 'il est fort mal' = 'he is very *unwell*'; 'nous sommes fort bien ici' = 'we are very comfortable here'; the German 'er ist wohl' = 'he is well'; and the Latin 'sic sum' = 'such am I,' 'bene est' = 'it is well,' &c). The best authorities treat 'well' as an adverb in 'He is well.' (*See* Koch, vol. ii., § 387; Mätzner, vol. iii., p. 147). 'Ill' is sometimes an adjective, but in modern usage it is used so predominantly as an adverb, that it had better be treated as an adverb in 'He is ill.'

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		1. from the crowd 2. by wealth
		1. from the crowd 2. by dignity
has laid	his	1. aside 2. where
		to learn

'was believed.'
predication, 'to be.'
'wealthy.'

† If the hether the object or adverbial adjunct is attached to the verb of inco

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shines,' 'The lion roars.' But if we say 'John struck,' 'Mary kissed,' 'The dog bit,' you see that we get a sort of sense, but not a very complete sense. The action that the verb tells of has to do with something else besides the doer of it. We want to know in each case *what the action was done to.* We get a more complete sense if we say 'John struck *William*'; 'Mary kissed *mamma*'; 'The dog bit *the sheep*.'

10. When a noun is put after a verb in this way to show what the action is directed to, it is called the **Object of the Verb.**

Exercise 5.

Take the following sentences, and point out which words are nouns, and which are verbs, and also which nouns are the subjects of verbs, and which nouns are the objects of verbs; and explain why some of the verbs have no object after them:—

1. John touched Henry. 2. Cats eat mice. 3. The horse kicked papa. 4. Cats mew. 5. Tom saw a rat. 6. Men eat bread. 7. A lion devoured a sheep. 8. Mary hates William. 9. The birds warble. 10. The butcher killed the pigs. 11. The pig squealed. 12. Mice eat cheese. 13. The master teaches the children. 14. Tom learns lessons. 15. Boys like play. 16. Tom broke the window. 17. Mary fetched the beer. 18. Horses draw carts. 19. I smell a rat. 20. Men fear death. 21. The master speaks.

Exercise 6.

In each of the following examples put in an object after the verb, to make the sense more complete:—

1. Mary pinched ——. 2. John saw ——. 3. Horses eat ——. 4. The dog broke ——. 5. The traveller lost ——. 6. The boy throws ——. 7. The man spent ——. 8. Jane caught ——. 9. The soldier carries ——. 10. The goat draws ——. 11. William bought ——. 12. Grocers sell ——. 13. A cobbler makes ——. 14. The tailor drank ——. 15. Squirrels crack ——.

Exercise 7.

Find out in which of the following examples you must put a noun after the verb, to show what the action is directed to:—

1. The boys saw. 2. Men pray. 3. The children quarrelled. 4. John lifted. 5. Mary dislikes. 6. Mary screams. 7. The

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haphazard sort of way. Only those words and forms must be joined together which suit each other by expressing notions which we can put together without making nonsense.

151. **Rule 1.**—The noun or pronoun which is the **Subject** of a sentence must be in the **Nominative Case.** (It would be nonsense to say '*Me* walk, or *Him* sings.')

152. **Rule 2.**—A Verb must agree with its **Subject** in **Number** and **Person.** (It would be nonsense to say 'I *sings*,' or 'John *am* tired.') Two or more nouns or pronouns joined by 'and' are counted as a plural. A noun which stands for a group of several things, such as *multitude*, *mob*, *flock*, *crowd*, may be the subject of a plural verb, as 'The multitude *were* of one mind.'

153. **Rule 3.**—A Noun or Pronoun which is the **Object of a verb** must be put in the **Objective Case.** (It would be nonsense to say 'My mother loves *I*,' or 'We saw *he* at church.')

Examples.

154. "Owls screech."

Owls—A common noun, of common gender, in the plural number, and in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb 'screech.'

Screech—An intransitive verb, in the active voice, indicative mood, present indefinite tense, and in the plural number and the third person to agree with its subject 'owls.'

155. "John bought a watch."

John—A proper noun, of the masculine gender, of the third person, in the singular number, and in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb 'bought.'

Bought—A transitive verb of the weak conjugation (*simple present tense** 'I buy,' *simple past tense* 'I bought,' *perf. participle* 'bought'), in the active voice, indicative mood, past indefinite tense (*or* simple past tense), and in the singular number and the third person to agree with its subject 'John.'

* In writing it will be enough, after working a few examples, to give the three forms *buy, bought, bought.*

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The **Complete Subject** of a sentence consists of the **Simple Subject taken along with all its adjuncts.**

16. The adjuncts of a subject may be—

1. **An Adjective**, as 'the *brown* pony.'
2. **A Noun in the Possessive Case**, as 'John's pony.'
3. **A Noun in Apposition** (which may have adjuncts of its own), as 'the pony, *the pet of the family*.'
4. **A Noun with a Preposition before it**, as 'the pony *in the stable*'; or an infinitive verb, as 'bread *to eat*.'
5. **A Participle** (which may have adjuncts of its own), as 'the pony *presented to John last week*.'

Several of these adjuncts (or enlargements) may be used at once.

17. Now take the sentence 'Some thieves stole the pony.' You will see that the very **same adjuncts** may be joined on to the **Object** of a verb that may be joined to its **Subject.** Thus—'Some thieves stole the *brown* pony'; 'Some thieves stole *John's* pony,' &c.

ANALYSIS—SUCCESSIVE STAGES.

18. Take the following examples :—

A. My poor cousin has just lost his young wife.
B. John's rich uncle has lately built ten great houses.
C. Nobody in the house heard the child's cry.
D. Smith the baker has bought that house in the square.
E. The houses erected on this piece of ground are for sale.
F. Has anybody in the meeting understood a single sentence uttered by the last speaker?

In the analysis of such sentences there are three stages.

I. Separation of the Complete Subject from the Complete Predicate.

Complete Subject.	*Complete Predicate.*
A. My poor cousin	has just lost his young wife.
B. John's rich uncle	has lately built ten great houses.
C. Nobody in the house	heard the child's cry.
D. Smith the baker	has bought that house in the square.
E. The houses erected on this piece of ground	are for sale.
F. Anybody in the meeting	has understood a single sentence uttered by the last speaker.

must be carefully made to understand that an 'enlarged subject' does not mean one that stands for more things than before, but merely denotes a collection of words by which a *fuller description* is given of that which we are speaking about.

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II. Separation of the Predicate-Verb from its Object and Adverbial Adjuncts.

	Subject with Attributive Adjuncts.	*Predicate.*	*Object with Attributive Adjuncts.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*
A	My poor cousin	has lost	his young wife	just
B	John's rich uncle	has built	ten great houses	lately.
C	Nobody in the house	heard	the child's cry.	
D	Smith the baker	has bought	that house in the square.	
E	The houses erected on this piece of ground	are		for sale.
F	Anybody in the meeting	has understood	a single sentence uttered by the last speaker.	

III. Further Separation of Attributive Adjuncts from both Subject and Object.

	Subject.	*Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.*	*Predicate.*	*Object.*	*Attributive Adjuncts of Object.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*
A	Cousin	1. my 2. poor	has lost	wife	1. his 2. young	just
B	Uncle	1. John's 2. rich	has built	houses	1. ten 2. great	lately
C	Nobody	in the house	heard	cry	the child's	
D	Smith	the baker	has bought	house	1. that 2. in the square	
E	houses	1. the* 2. erected on this piece of ground	are			for sale
	Anybody	in the meeting	has understood	sentence	1. a* 2. single 3. uttered by the last speaker	

* When there are several attributive adjuncts to a noun, the article may as well be set down among them. 'The' is, after all, only a variety of the demonstrative adjective 'that,' and 'a' means 'one.'

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Think of some other nouns, or nouns with adjectives before them, out of which you can make adjectives by adding *-ed.*

-ing, the common ending of imperfect participles—*charming, striking, provoking, pleasing, budding*, &c.

Find others of a similar kind.

-en or **-n**—(*a*) past participles, as *beaten, broken*, &c.; (*b*) adjectives formed from nouns, as *wooden, brazen* (from *brass*). These denote '*made of* that for which the noun stands.'

Form similar adjectives from *flax, leather, wheat, ash, oak, gold, earth.*

-ern (added to a few nouns)—*northern, southern*, &c.

-er—*bitter* (from *bite*), *lither* (from *lithe*).

-ard or **-art** forms adjectives (*a*) from other adjectives, as *dullard, drunkard;* (*b*) from verbs, as *dotard laggard, braggart.* It gives a strong sort of meaning to the word.

-ish, -sh, -ch form adjectives (*a*) from nouns, to denote 'having the qualities of that for which the noun stands,' as *slavish, childish, Turkish, French;* (*b*) from other adjectives, to denote '*having a little of the quality*,' as *brownish, sweetish*, &c.

Make similar adjectives from *monk, cur, thief, wolf, tiger, devil, qualm, lump, dull, cold, hard.*

Find other adjectives of a similar kind, and show what they are made from.

-y forms adjectives from nouns, to denote '*covered with, full of*, or *having the character of* that for which the noun stands,' as *grassy, dusty, leathery, thirsty.*

Form similar adjectives from *hunger, blood, luck, sugar, rain, bog, smoke, flesh.*

Try if you can find a dozen more.

-ly (a weakened form of **like**)—*manly* (like a *man*), *ghastly* (like a *ghost*), *princely*, &c.

Make similar adjectives from *king, heaven, earth, wife, friend, father, lord.*

Find a dozen more of a similar sort.

-less, denoting '*without* that for which the primary noun stands,' as *senseless, careless*, &c.

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